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ABSTRACT

This monograph is designed as an introductory guide to developing effective educational teams in school districts. Aimed at both preservice and inservice educators, it shows how teams can be used to support collaboration and mutual problem-solving at all levels of the school district and describes various issues related to the development of educational teams. The authors discuss various qualities and processes that nurture functional and adaptive educational teams and present methods for increasing their effectiveness. They also offer practical strategies for helping school personnel examine their team communication patterns, goal clarification procedures, conflict processes, problem-solving methods, and decision-making procedures. In addition, they also provide an introduction to consultative strategies for building and maintaining self-renewing educational teams. An annotated bibliography of relevant readings for educators is included at the end of each chapter. (JG)

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**The Development of
Educational Teams**

by

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March 1976

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Preface

We Americans have celebrated our 200th birthday still seeking a more perfect union. Psychological alientation and social disintegration are high; our hopes, faith, and trust in the future are low. As a society, we are continually searching for groups, organizations, and communities in which productivity and efficiency are coupled with interpersonal trust, openness, collaboration, and supportiveness.

Two social trends -- powerful and, to a great extent, seemingly competitive -- press upon all of us. On the one hand, we are experiencing the continuing trend of people interacting on a daily basis with more and more people. This can be referred to as the Press of Interdependence. It is fashioned out of the continuing movements of people into cities and suburbs, the ever expanding networks of our large corporations, the speed and efficiency of air travel, and the immediacy and realism of television. For all of America's vastness, most of our contemporary technical achievements are moving us closer together and are therefore pressing us to collaborate with one another.

On the other hand, we are experiencing a significant Press Toward Pluralism and cultural diversity. This force is fueled by a continuing explosion in knowledge and technology, increasing distance between generations, and a rising awareness on the part of Blacks, Mexican-Americans, Native

Americans, women, senior citizens, and youngsters that they should take their own rightful status in American society. This trend is moving America away from the image of cultural homogeneity and conformity toward a stress on racial and ethnic identity and individuality. It is now powerful enough to be supported by the majority of Americans.

The press for interdependence has been stimulated by gradual but profound ecological and economic changes. New centers of population have developed rapidly, especially in cities close to areas of economic growth. In addition to mobility occasioned by shifts in work and living sites, Americans now move about a great deal in pursuit of their leisure activities. The number of passenger miles traveled has more than doubled over the past 10 years, testifying to the large-scale migratory character of contemporary America. The economic changes generally have followed a rural to urban pattern of area development, and an entrepreneurial to bureaucratic pattern of social organization. These bureaucratic structures and occupations necessitate communication and interdependence with colleagues, and basic interpersonal competencies in dealing with the public.

The press for pluralism and the legitimation of variety have been nurtured especially by a revolution in the world of knowledge and our access to it. An increased scientific understanding of many aspects of our natural world has led to dramatic growth in an emphasis on the use of science in industry, government, and human affairs in general. Industrial researchers and developers plan not only new products and markets, but new forms of production and internal management. The public sector also invests heavily in basic and applied research in the physical and social sciences. It is more and more important for Americans in all institutions to become informed of recent discoveries in their own fields and, as new discoveries are made, to create new occupational specialties. This knowledge explosion threatens

to make standards of the past -- especially standards of conformity and homogeneity -- irrelevant and outmoded; and calls into question many previously held assumptions. The result is that the contemporary American is called upon to change often, to take less for granted, and to maintain fewer unquestioned or unquestionable assumptions and behavior patterns. No matter what the area of belief, value, behavior, or traditions -- whether it is about the government, minority groups, women, sex, senior citizens, or children's rights -- knowledge gatherers and researchers may challenge accustomed ways of thinking and behaving with new information and implications at any time.

Few American institutions have felt the presses for interdependence and pluralism more than the schools. They have been on center stage, offering an arena for many of the interpersonal and intergroup conflicts that pervade American life. In many American cities, secondary schools constitute some of the most highly populated organizations, and since they draw upon a cross-section of the entire population, they are made up of the sociological diversity of the region. In many American school districts, unconscious institutional racism and sexism characterize the administrative structures. Moreover, the knowledge and technical explosion in the larger society clearly also typifies the schools. During the 1950s when the federal government began funding school improvement programs in a major way, behavioral scientists by the hundreds were quickly drawn into attempting to solve the complex problems of public education. The private foundations supported still more efforts at school improvement and 10 years later in the 1960s, American industry too was attempting to take a role in efforts to upgrade schooling. As a result, the last 20 years have seen an unprecedented number and variety of educational innovations.

In relation to the presses for interdependence and pluralism, the most basic innovations have had to do with modifications in the organizational arrangements of schools. Among the most popular are new preschool arrangements; variations in scheduling to support individualized instruction; informal primary schools; differentiated staffing patterns; team-teaching; pupil personnel teams; curriculum development committees; the multiunit school; the middle school; houses within schools; small schools within large schools; schools without walls; community schools; open-space schools, and the management team concept within schools, within areas, and within whole districts.

The list could go on and on; indications are that we've only seen the beginning of such organizational innovations. A recent study of school architecture, for example, indicated that during 1973 and 1974, 63 percent of all new school buildings were designed with an open-space concept in mind. The data further indicated that in states such as California and Florida, to which large numbers have migrated during the past decade, 100 percent of the new schools are open-space schools. On other fronts, the University of Wisconsin's Research and Development Center on Cognitive Learning is estimating that there will be over 2,000 multiunit elementary schools forming during the next few years, and the Kettering Foundation continues to stimulate interest in its variety of multiunit organization. The state of North Dakota requires its elementary teachers to receive some inservice training in informal education processes, and nearly every large city in the United States is experimenting with some form of alternative education for high school students. The magnitude of interest in new organizational patterns for schools is indicated in a recent analysis of the educational literature issued by the ERIC Clearinghouse of Educational Administration at the Univer-

sity of Oregon. More than 150 references are cited having to do with "alternative organizational forms."

Concepts of teamwork are integrally embedded in every one of these suggested innovative arrangements. The themes of interdependence and pluralism underlie most of them. Still, many of the basic issues associated with team-like characteristics remain very ambiguous within the minds of educators. Teamwork is in search of an operational definition. Even a casual look at some schools gives evidence of the ambiguities of educational teaming. Take these three examples, for instance:

(1) How should teaming work in open-space schools? Even though open-space schools are built to facilitate increased staff collaboration, many teachers discover ways to circumvent the design by using movable walls, bookcases, tables, and desks to restore a self-contained physical arrangement.

(2) What does it mean to be a part of a team in a multiunit school? In some multiunit schools, teachers will speak about being a part of a team, yet only occasionally meet with their so-called teammates and then meet primarily to handle routine administrative details. Indeed, it is rare to find a teaching team that is fully collaborating in planning and implementing the instructional program.

(3) What about management teamwork? At the administrative level, the concept of the management team is being discussed and attempted in various ways all over the country. Yet it remains a fairly fuzzy concept for many administrators. District office administrators in large urban systems often speak, for example, of building principals who are not acting as part of the district management team, even when the more than 100 building principals in such districts rarely meet and talk. In such situa-

tions, the phrase "management team" is meaningless. Unfortunately, the words educational team have a host of meanings, whether they refer to instructional or management bodies. It is not suprising that teachers and administrators alike are asking for clarity on what it means to be a member of a team.

Briefly stated, the basis for developing vital team-like characteristics in contemporary pluralistic America lies in the understanding and building among educators of new interpersonal norms and skills in schools. The new norms accept human collaboration and human diversity as basic facts for problem solving, survival, and growth. They support the values that interpersonal and intergroup conflict should be openly confronted and collaboratively dealt with in a problem solving way. These norms must be accompanied by particular interpersonal and group skills -- skills such as communicating unambiguously in a two-way fashion, setting goals clearly, uncovering conflicts constructively, solving problems systematically, and making decisions collaboratively are keys to successful teamwork. In this book, we shall offer clarifying information about educational teams and present action ideas for their development.

Richard A. Schmuck

February, 1976

Chapter 1

Defining Characteristics of Educational Teams

An educational team is a task-oriented group of school personnel (possibly including students and parents) who hold some pedagogical goals in common, interact through a formal role-structure, and have some degree of reciprocal influence in relation to one another. Among the most salient defining characteristics of educational teams are size, work structure, and psychological climate. Such bodies as teaching teams, curriculum committees, student tutoring teams, administrative cabinets, and school-community groups can qualify as examples of educational teams.

Within the context of contemporary America, the viable educational team brings together and integrates the pressures for interdependence and pluralism that reside within the school-community. Educational teams become substitutes for the one-to-one hierarchical structures of traditional schooling. By listening to others discuss their problems and action plans, an increased understanding of the complexities of the school can be obtained. Moreover, by encouraging that minority opinions are fully explained within the team and by using group brainstorming techniques, many new, more creative solutions for action planning can be developed. Also, by pooling information from a variety of organizational vantage points (including the more plural-

istic views of a diverse membership), action planning can increase in its rationality and effectiveness. Through collaborative participation in decision making, an increased sense of psychological ownership can be developed within a team, making it likely that action plans, once decided upon, will be fully implemented by team members.

Size

To obtain the benefits of teamwork, the educational team should be large enough to incorporate a variety of different members while it is small enough to allow effective face-to-face problem solving discussions and collaborative decision making. With these specifications, the educational team typically does not exceed 15 members nor should it have fewer than five members.

In most school districts there are potentially a multitude of teams at every level of the system. Since teams are made up of between five and 15 persons who work together closely, teachers, administrators, specialists, students, and parents may be complexly organized into a network of interlocked or connected teams. As the number of educational personnel in a district increases, educational teams are likely to multiply. They, in turn, can be connected to one another by linking roles. Linking role-takers participate in the deliberations of at least two of the district's teams, thereby being in a position to carry information from one team to another.

As a typical example, area superintendents take the linking role when they participate as members of the superintendent's cabinet and as they convene a team of field administrators. Or, as another example, principals serve as linking agents as they participate within an area team

while also convening a decision-making team within a building. In larger districts, we might see the administrators as being involved in several different teams, some of which are permanent, such as the superintendent's cabinet, an area secondary team, a variety of school building management teams; and others of which are temporary such as specialized curriculum bodies, workshop planning groups, and recruitment committees. The permanent teams can be interlocked by linking roles. Thus, a central office management team is articulated with an area team by an area superintendent and area teams are articulated with school management teams through the linking communications of principals.

Work Structure

The work structure refers to ways in which the team is organized to accomplish its primary purposes. Different purposes naturally give rise to alternative work structures. A simple example illustrates this fact. Compare two rather simple tasks that are to be accomplished by two people. The first consists of moving a 300 lbs. refrigerator down a flight of stairs while the second consists of moving 300 lbs. of books down the same flight of stairs.

Obviously these two different jobs call for quite different types of work structure. In moving the refrigerator, it is clear that not only will the twosome have to combine their individual strengths, but they also will have to coordinate their moment-to-moment movements with one another while they are working. Such a work structure is analogous to the sort of interpersonal relationships called for when two teachers co-teach the same students in the same room at the same time.

Moving the books, on the other hand, allows for greater latitude and

freedom in building an appropriate division of labor. Clearly, the twosome does not have to be working together at the same time to accomplish the task. They do, of course, have the option of working together and indeed in working together in a variety of ways. For example, one worker can put the books in boxes while the other carries them down, or one can stand on the bottom of the stairs while the other slides the books down. Such work structures are analogous to curriculum committees in which roles are differentiated with regard to bringing in innovative ideas, translating ideas into realistic classroom designs, collecting evaluative data on the classroom trials, and the like.

Implicit in these examples are at least three defining characteristics of educational teams: (1) Interdependence among team members, (2) time dimensions of team interrelationships, and (3) space dimensions of teamwork.

Interdependence refers to the extent to which team members depend on one another to accomplish the overall purposes of the team. On the one hand, interdependence may simply have to be high, as it is in co-teaching, in co-leading a group discussion, or in the refrigerator example given above. On the other hand, required interdependence quite often is very low in educational teams. Members of some management teams in schools can, for example, execute their respective administrative functions without a great deal of collaboration. The relationship between autonomy and interdependence constitutes a major issue for the work structure of a team.

Time represents another defining characteristic of a team's work structure. There is, for example, the duration of the life of a team; some are ad hoc and temporary, others last for many years. There is the amount of time that team members spend with one another in their work and the length

and frequency of meetings of the team or subgroups of the team. Also, some requirement of time is usually built into the subtasks that the team is carrying out. Typically, a team has a schedule of task completion and a rate and pace of progress. There is also some balance that must be reached between the subtasks and the amounts of time allocated for each of them. These temporal rhythms constitute a basic aspect of an educational team's work structure.

Space makes up a third defining characteristic of a team's work structure. The primary tasks dictate the type of spatial relationships that are necessary for their accomplishment. The structure of the physical space which houses the team and the distances among team members if they are not working in the same physical environment influence working relations in the team. Physical space influences the closeness and distance of team members, both in terms of the team's resources and the sharing of up to date information. Space might also be thought of in the context of social distance between team members because of participation in different outside groups and strata in society. Thus, space can be viewed as both physical and social psychological and in the latter sense refers to such dimensions as interpersonal closeness and distance, trust, and feelings of attraction or repulsion among team members.

Psychological Climate

Along with team size, connectedness to other teams, and its work structure, the team's psychological climate represents another of its defining characteristics. Indeed, matters of size and structure are mere skeletal beginning points in relation to the importance of psychological climate. Obviously, educational teams differ in their feeling tones

and the members' perceptions and feelings about the team will differ from team to team. Some work quietly with a high degree of formality and even tenseness; others seem much more pleasant, jovial, active, and exciting. Some teams have a climate of competitiveness and social distance, while others appear highly cooperative and mellow.

Some of the basic characteristics of a team's climate are group processes involving interpersonal expectations, influence, attraction, norms, and communication. Perhaps the most important single dimension of a team's psychological climate is its cohesiveness. Cohesiveness refers to the social interaction patterns that converge to influence members' feelings of inclusion and involvement. For example, group processes concerning expectations, leadership, attraction, norms, and communication can all play a part in relation to cohesiveness. In cohesive teams, the members tend to feel influential, contributions are considered relevant and worthwhile, and appropriate influence methods are agreed upon by all.

A more intangible characteristic of team climate is shared feelings of trust among the members. Feelings of trust are based on the two criteria of competence and intentions. In order for feelings of trust to exist among team members they should see one another as being competent enough to carry out their respective tasks. Likewise, they should perceive one another as being competent enough to communicate clearly and openly. If such expectations of competence are lacking among team members, the trust level in the team will suffer. Equally important are team members' expectations about one another's intentions. Trust will develop to the extent that team members experience one another as having positive intentions in working collaboratively toward the team goal and in communicating clearly

and honestly. Trust will be destroyed to the extent that team members begin to experience one another's intentions as competitive or harmful.

It follows then that trust among team members can be affected by the specific leadership styles, communication patterns, and the norms for problem solving and decision making of the team. Expectations of team leaders are particularly important in determining whether collaborative or competitive norms predominate in the team. When are rewards offered and what team behaviors get rewarded? Are conditions such that team members can only gain at one another's expense? Or, are things set up so that success and its rewards are dependent on collaborative activity? Answers to these questions directly reflect the development of trust among team members.

Another facet of group climate related to the issue of trust is organizational pain. In a brief essay entitled, "Personal and Organizational Pain: Costs and Profits," Runkel points out that pain is an unavoidable fact of organizational life and that "it is unlikely that we can reduce very much the overall number of occasions for pain without reducing the opportunities for interpersonal interaction itself." However, Runkel continues:

Despite the fact that we probably cannot reduce by much the total amount of pain with which we must cope, we can do a great deal to increase the profit we get from our pains. Much of our pain -- certainly most of our psychological pain -- is pain we give each other, and it is within our power to redistribute the occasions upon which pain arises. We can, through explicit agreement about responsibilities and the careful practice of new sorts of collaboration, share more equally the burden of pain. More than that, we

can deliberately and collaboratively choose the purposes for which we shall expose ourselves to pain, instead of finding ourselves ambushed by pain dumped on us by others; we can agree with our colleagues on what we hope to purchase with our pain.

An educational team that maintains a favorable psychological climate is one in which its members through collaborative decision making take responsibility for the distribution for their pain, deciding where they are going to experience it and towards which end.

The ideal climate will differ in its particulars from team to team; however, some specific aspects of psychological climate will be sought by all educational teams. Most teams will strive to build climates in which the members expect one another to be responsible and supportive; where the members share high amounts of potential influence, both with one another and with the formal leader; in which some attraction exists for the team as a whole and between members; where norms are supportive of collaborative problem solving as well as for maximizing individual differences; wherein communication is open and featured by dialogue; and where the processes of working and developing as a team are considered relevant in themselves for group reflection and criticism.

Establishing Favorable Team Climate

With this picture of psychological climate in mind, let us enumerate some of the group processes necessary to achieve it. Clear communication -- the basic foundation upon which the climate depends -- requires the maintenance of a two-way flow of valid information among team members. It calls for efficient meetings, before which agenda items

are publicly displayed and at which convening skills are adeptly applied so that problems are fully discussed and decisions are clearly made. Team members should expect to spend considerable amounts of time together discussing the dynamics of their own working relationships. Every meeting will include at least some small amount of formal time for team members to reflect together on their interpersonal processes.

Also fundamental to a team's establishing a favorable psychological climate is a clearly worked out decision-making pattern, calling for a maximum amount of member participation within the usual constraints of maintaining efficiency. Teams will be likely to achieve such participation by employing consensus discussion techniques. Consensus discussion is a process of collaborative participation in reaching decisions. When employing consensus discussion methods, all team members contribute their thoughts and feelings and all share in the final decision. No decision becomes final which is not understood by nearly all members; for this reason, reaching agreement is difficult and at times impossible. Effective consensus discussions require advanced skills in two-way communication, in coping with conflict, and in the use of paraphrasing and surveying the group.

Consensus discussion represents teamwork in process. It need not mean unanimity, nor does it require that everyone agrees about any substantive issue. Indeed, successful coping with the pressures of interdependence and pluralism means that disagreements must become constructive resources for the team. Operationally, consensus discussion means that

(1) every team member can restate the issue being discussed to show that he or she understands it, (2) every team member has a chance to describe his or her feelings about the issue, and (3) those who continue to disagree or to have doubts will nevertheless say publicly that they are willing to give some action an experimental try in relation to the issue for a prescribed period of time. Consensus discussion, then, leads to a team condition in which all members are willing to go along without sabotaging future actions. And, thus, a sufficient number of team members are in favor of the action enough to carry it out while others understand what is happening and will not obstruct it. Such a living condition is what teaming is in its most basic sense.

Annotated Bibliography
(Chapter 1)

Bales, B.F. and E.F. Borgatta, "Size of Groups as a Factor in the Interaction Profile," in Hare, A., Borgatta, E.F., and B.F. Bales, (Eds.). Small Groups, rev. ed. New York: A.A. Knopf, 1966, p. 499.

This is a systematic investigation of groups ranging in size from two to seven members, using the method of "interaction process analysis." Interaction process analysis is used for observing verbal and nonverbal communication in groups that are indicators of problem solving, expressions of support, and symptoms of withdrawal. The results of the study indicate relationships between group size and the group's communication patterns.

Fosmire, F.R., "A Heuristic Scheme for Conceptualizing Group Trust," Department of Psychology, University of Oregon, 1970, mimeo.

This paper outlines several dimension related to group-trust, and discusses various learning-experiences designed to help group members become aware of how these dimensions operate in their group.

Litwin, G.H., "Climate and Motivation: An Experimental Study." In Kolb, D., Rubin, I., and J. McIntyre (Eds.). Organizational Psychology: A Book of Readings. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971.

This study investigates the effects of group climate on the motivation of group members. Three simulated business organi-

zations were created, each with a different leadership style. One consisted of an authoritarian structure with emphasis on formal control and interaction. A second was a loose, informal structure in which the leader stressed friendly, cooperative behavior and team work. The third stressed high productivity in which innovative and creative effort and task accomplishment were supported and reinforced by the leader. Statistically significant differences were found among the three organizations on all climate dimensions, and significant relationships were found between each of the organizational climates and their respective members' motivational characteristics.

Melcher, A.J., Structure and Process of Organizations: A Systems Approach, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976.

This book incorporates the latest research findings and applies them to the analysis of complex organizations based on the systems approach. A major part of the book looks at the effects of "primary structural variables" i.e., size, work flow, task complexity, and spatial-physical factors.

Sommer, R., "Small Group Ecology," Psychological Bulletin, 67, 1967, p. 150.

This article reviews the relevant literature on the relationship between spatial factors and group processes. It indicates that spatial arrangements do affect and reflect leadership, status, communication, collaboration, task structure, and the need for personal space in small groups.

Runkel, P.J., Personal and Organizational Pain (A Lecturette). In J.W. Pfeiffer and J.E. Jones (Eds.), 1974 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, San Diego: University Associates, 1974, pp. 148-149.

This brief essay states that pain is unavoidable in organizations, especially during change. We can, however, choose the purposes for which we shall expose ourselves to pain, instead of finding ourselves ambushed by pain dumped upon us by others.

Worthy, "Organizational Structure and Employee Morale," American Sociological Review, 15, April, 1950, pp. 169-179.

This is a 12-year study conducted by Sears, Roebuck, and Co. on the relationship between organizational structure and employee morale. The findings indicate that increased employee satisfaction is related to increased integration in the organization's structure. The increasing size of administrative units and the increasing complexity of organizational structure are identified as trends that tend to make the integration of organizational structure more difficult. Horizontal, less complex organizations with a maximum of administrative decentralization create a potential for increased integration, leading to improved attitudes, more effective supervision and greater individual responsibility and initiative among employees.

Ziller, R.C., "Group Size: A Determinant of the Quality and Stability of Group Decisions," Sociometry, 20, 1957, pp. 165-172.

This study sought to determine what happens to the quality of group decisions, satisfaction with group decisions, sense of group unity, and the extent that communication is inhibited as group size increases from one to six members. Members of military crews were assigned two tasks -- one was product-oriented, the other human relations problem -- and the frequency of errors was computed as the group size was increased. The results of the study indicated a high interaction between the nature of the task and the size of the group as they effected the variables studied.

Chapter 2

Types of Educational Teams

It is a common, well supported belief among social psychologists that involving people in planning for change will heighten their willingness to put effort into implementing the changes. Moreover, involving people in collaborative planning can increase the variety of useful practical action ideas that may emerge. These concepts are gradually gaining acceptance among educators, and teamwork is beginning to be implemented at a number of different loci within the public schools. Below, we discuss six different types of educational teams that are gaining prominence.

Teaching Teams

There is a definite movement in schools toward increased formal collaboration and cooperation among staff members. These changes in the social structure of the school are motivated by an assumption that innovative curriculum and instruction will flourish more in group arrangements that facilitate greater interdependence among the professionals and students. Increasingly, teachers are expected to work together and to share their resources to provide a broadened range of learning opportunities for children. It is believed that by working together in teaching teams, teachers can multiply their strengths and reduce the detrimental impact of

their weaknesses.

Team teaching can be defined as the attempt of two or more teachers, working closely together, to provide a common instructional program for the same collection of students. As such, it implies that goals and expectations are agreed upon publicly within the team, that there is a norm among the team members of openness and extensive sharing of ideas and feelings, and that the learning activities provided to students result from joint planning, thinking, and evaluation of all team members.

A new organizational pattern for elementary schools called the multiunit structure offers an example of how an entire school staff can be deployed for team teaching. In the multiunit structure, staff work in units or teams rather than in individuated isolation. Typically, each of three groups of five or six teachers, paraprofessionals, and aides are responsible for educating the 6 and 7 year-olds, the 8 and 9 year-olds, and the 10 and 11 year-olds respectively. In these teams, teachers are expected to share the responsibility for educating all of the children of the unit and to collaborate in ways which include collective planning and teaching.

An additional feature of the multiunit structure is a leadership team that is constituted of team leaders from each of the three units, the principal, the resource librarian, and the counselor or child development specialist. This core group attempts to coordinate the educational program, to keep communication between teams open and accurate, and to maintain contact with resources outside the school. In these ways the multiunit structure includes a communicative linkage between each level in the hierarchy and each formal subsystem. In the multiunit structure, the principal links the leadership team to the central office, and the unit leaders link the

leadership team with the teachers and students. Thus, every participant can communicate with someone directly who is a member of the leadership team.

Shifts toward school structures of this type represent responses to pressures for interdependence in our society. Thus, the functioning of the individual teacher becomes more dependent on and of course influenced by the behaviors of other teachers. Naturally, new social norms and interpersonal expectations necessarily arise on such faculties. Unilateral behavior on the part of teachers that may previously have been considered appropriate can become obstructive and dysfunctional to the teaching team. And because of this, increased interdependence among teachers and administrators often gives rise to stress and conflict within teaching teams. In particular, newly formed teams and emerging multiunit structures are vulnerable to these tensions between professionals.

In the face of such tension, educators strive to build stability and regularity into teaching teams. Teaching teams tend to set up relatively close and consistent time and space relationships among members. There are, for example, regular team meetings each week or even every day that take place in the same physical locations regularly. Along with efforts to bring about a high degree of regular coordination, membership of the teaching team remains largely unchanged over a large period of time. Irregular meetings held in unexpected places along with high turnover rates typically are indicators of a low amount of teamwork and of intrateam tensions and conflicts.

High interdependence, high stability over time and space, and a relatively stable membership on teaching teams tend to make group process issues especially salient. The clarity of interpersonal communication and

the trust and respect members have for one another take on special importance. Moreover, norms in support of diversity and pluralism must eventually emerge to support and make use of the different talents and predilections of team members. Within any teaching team there will likely exist a range of philosophical differences, not to speak of differences in teaching styles and classroom management practices. While such variety represents a resource for the school, these varying positions also can be associated with strong feelings. Deeply held values and beliefs about proper teaching methods sets the stage for conflicts within the teaching team; the lack of openness about these and the lack of constructive problem-solving behavior about them can result in every member of the team going off along to teach in his or her own way. The resulting individuation and separateness undermines the benefits that might arise from teamwork.

Thus, teaching teams must learn how to deal with inevitable tensions and conflicts that will arise. Mechanisms must be built within the team for clarification of goals, for resolving differences, for action planning, and for collaborative decision making. If teaching teams can develop such procedures, then the strengths of interdependence and pluralism can be realized. Teachers can flourish by feeling that they have the support of their colleagues; they can have greater impact on their students by working consistently on classroom management and by having several teachers work closely with the same students from different points of view. Working together toward agreed upon goals using a diversity of teaching styles can be both beneficial to students and exhilarating to teachers.

Across-School Teacher Teams

Quite a different sort of educational teams are those made up of

teachers from several schools within a district. Examples are curriculum committees, advisory boards, fact-finding groups, and special problem-solving committees. Often, district-wide teams of this sort serve advisory functions to administrators; increasingly, however, across-school teacher teams are being granted legitimate authority and decision-making power. Indeed, teacher associations and unions are now trying to negotiate for more and more legitimate power for teachers in relation to the educational administrators.

Typically, across-district teams are ad hoc and temporary. In such teams, meetings occur at significant time intervals and are less regular than the meetings of teaching teams. After a particular task has been completed or a piece of advice has been offered, many district-wide teacher teams are disbanded or become dormant. Such arrangements of time and space, along with the rather low amount of interdependence, result in some difficulties of coordination in district-wide teams. There are difficulties in establishing meeting times when all members can attend and in keeping members fully informed between meetings. Often, district-wide teams attempt to cope with these circumstances by dividing tasks up so that subgroups of team members have easy access to one another between team meetings. Dividing the work among team members may facilitate efficiency but it can lead to too much differentiation and a low level of group cohesiveness.

The norms for how teachers within a district should behave within temporary district-wide groups often are unclear. And, many teachers may not act in ways that would improve the team's coordination and cohesiveness because they do not see any rewards for this type of collaboration. Serving

on a district-wide committee is viewed as a necessary responsibility, not as an attractive activity by many teachers. Thus, the energy that helps to create team cohesiveness, feelings of personal commitment, and willingness to work hard must be generated from inside the group.

Often interpersonal tensions arise in across-school teacher teams because of team members belonging to other, more primary teams which have different goals and interests. Thus, power struggles can arise because team members act out these different goals and interests within the cross-district team. Such conflict can become particularly frustrating and acute when there is strong competition for scarce resources within the district. In the extreme, team members may present a "front" of working collaboratively toward common goals while working "behind the scenes" at cross-purposes, subtly sabotaging the team's efforts. Psychologically, the individual team member experiences pushes and pulls from both the "home" team and from the pressures within the cross-district team, thereby giving rise to feelings of confusion and frustration among team members. To deal with these social and psychological conflicts of allegiances to two or more teams demands skill of interpersonal openness that permit frank discussion and pave the way for collaborative problem solving.

Compared to within school teaching teams, cross-district teams do not require the same high level of interpersonal compatibility. This is not to imply that interpersonal issues have little bearing on how across-school teams function, but that interpersonal togetherness tends to be more critical in teaching teams where high interdependence is required. Of course, since interpersonal closeness and support often are less prominent in across-school teams than teaching teams, feelings of loneliness and alienation can easily arise and plague the former. Moreover, the individual

team member who lacks the competency to perform a specific task may create more of a group problem in across-school teams than in teaching teams where the interdependent structure can help compensate for individual deficiencies.

An example of an across-school team which has successfully dealt with many of the dilemmas described above is the cadre of organizational specialists within a district. The primary purpose of the cadre is to deliver consultation in organization development to other teams and subsystems within the district. Members of the cadre are drawn from different roles and hierarchical levels in the district. They form into subgroups of three or four to build designs and training techniques whereby intradistrict communications are clarified and constructive attitudes are taken to problem solving.

It is important to note that the successful functioning of the cadre is based on its ability to become recognized as a legitimate cross-district team with purposes and methods that are superordinate to all of the particular goals and interests present in the district. Thus, the cadre is a cross-district team which advocates total district cohesiveness and does not advocate the interests of any particular subgroup. We shall write about the methods of such cadres, especially as they relate to team building, later in this booklet.

Management Teams

Administrative and managerial responsibilities for the local school or the district have traditionally been held primarily by the building principal and the school superintendent. They have represented the key line positions in the control structures of school districts. These two positions have been at the top of a control structure. To other positions lower down

in the hierarchy are delegated portions of administrative responsibility, but anyone who fills a particular role within the traditional hierarchy is always responsible to another person above him who, in turn, is responsible to still another until we reach the person on top. What we have then in the traditional administrative structure in schools is a top oriented, individuated, division of responsibility, the whole of which is fully comprehensible only to individuals in top positions. Although such a system of administrative arrangements is still operative in many districts, it tends to be giving way to a more collaborative system.

The new system to which we refer is being implemented in the form of management teams. In the management team those role-takers who have been involved in the hierarchical relationship develop new norms and skills for taking on mutual, shared responsibilities for management. This new arrangement calls for the managers as a team to assume administrative responsibilities in a collaborative manner. Thus, all managers gain access to many of the problems and actions of management. Responsibilities are shared in a rational and flexible manner in accordance with external demands and current resources on the team; and team members can build on one another's resources to reach a higher level of problem-solving activity than is possible in the traditional structure.

A number of social psychological obstacles arise as school administrators try to move from the traditional hierarchy to the collaborative team model. For one thing, such a transition constitutes a definite change in decision-making processes. The movement from authoritarian to collaborative decision making can arouse confusion in both the "top" people and those who have occupied lower positions in the traditional hierarchy. For the higher status people, such a shift in decision making can be viewed

as a loss of control over the organization which can be psychologically stressful for individuals who tend to have strong power motivation and needs for control. In addition, and perhaps even more importantly, the customs and even laws of many districts put the ultimate authority and responsibility in the hands of the "top" administrator. Thus, while the superintendent and his cabinet may decide to share collective responsibility for certain decisions, the school board and the court still may hold the superintendent responsible. Such external and internal pressures on the "top" administrators often can result in "mixed messages," in which some of their behaviors seem to contradict their voiced commitment to a management team. And, inconsistent reactions on the part of the leaders can lead to confusion, frustration, and anger among other members of the team.

Making transition to the management team model also can present difficulties for those lower in the hierarchy as well. This is particularly true when the impetus for the changes originates from the top. Being asked to meet often and to make collaborative decisions may be viewed as an inappropriate increase in workload and responsibility by the lower level administrators. They often do not wish to put out the increased time and energy that is required for joint problem solving and collaborative decision making. They may even be suspicious that somehow they are being manipulated by those with more formal authority. Or conversely, participation on a management team may be entered into reluctantly by those lower in the administrative hierarchy because they believe that the administrative leaders are inappropriately abdicating their formal responsibilities.

Most of these social psychological dilemmas tend to emerge out of confusions and frustrations related to changing the methods of decision making. To cope with such dilemmas the management team needs to develop

both a clear understanding of how various issues will be settled in the team and a clear understanding of how this particular team relates to other subgroups within the school or district. If such clarity is not attained, members of the management team will continue to feel confused and frustrated over the structural change in which they are being urged to participate.

Most management teams are made up of participants who cut across several levels of the traditional hierarchy. In the local school, for example, the principal and the assistant principal often team up with department heads, team leaders, or head teachers. Depending on the school, these lower level managers often do not think of themselves as administrators. In the district, the superintendent and several assistants try to team up with key staff members who often will not think of themselves as administrators. Thus, some resistance to the management team concept may come from those who see administrative activities as intrusions on their most important duties. However, for the management team concept to function successfully it is critical to involve some participants who have not normally considered themselves managers. These participants can perform a "link-pin" function, linking staff members at different vantage points in the school and district. The link-pin function facilitates organizational effectiveness by ensuring a flow of information across traditional hierarchial levels -- an information flow that proceeds in both directions.

Although this link-pin structure constitutes one of the major advantages of the management team, it also contains potential stress for the functioning of the team. For example, a person in the pivotal link-pin position can be fraught with feelings of being "pulled apart" by the

the interests and goals of the two subsystems in which he or she is currently a member. Such stress arises when there are philosophical conflicts between groups and when there is high competition for scarce resources. Thus, persons in the link-pin position may find themselves in a "between group" position and perhaps retreat from active participation in the management team. To be effective, the management team will have to find ways of dealing openly with conflicts between groups and within individuals.

There are two other issues related to conflict in management teams that are worthy of mention. First is the tension related to one's desires for upward mobility in the school district. The democratic zeitgeist of the management team may be in conflict with the personal desires of some educators who wish to be recognized as holding high status. Such ambitions can lead to noncooperation in and nonsupport for the management team concept. Second are the conflict-laden issues that can arise around accountability. Typically, managers are asked to hold themselves accountable to only a few bodies, but in the management team concept, the managers are supposed to be accountable to more constituencies. Often the various constituencies exert conflicting demands. Thus, members of management teams face up to being in a "fish bowl" and find ways of building new structures of multiple accountability.

While we mostly have focused on management teams that function within either a school or a district office, some management teams may also exist across schools. For example, the principals of the several elementary schools that feed into a single junior high might work together to plan for the effective progression of their students into the next higher school level. Or, the coordination of high school sports may be

the administrative responsibility of representatives from all the high schools. Such across-district management teams will have the problem of keeping communication clear when they meet as representatives of their own schools, while working together cohesively as a single team to do the team's work. Since such teams may not meet often, it will be important to get information around to all members between meetings and to see that unilateral actions on the part of individual members do not undermine progress toward team goals.

Parent and Community Teams

Community involvement in the schools has greatly expanded during the past decade. Whether it is parents working in the schools as paraprofessional aides or volunteers, or demands for local community control and decentralization, the boundaries of the school organization are expanding to include input and influence from the nonprofessional community. Mostly, community involvements have been only partially organized, however, and the potential resourcefulness of parents and other citizens have not been effectively used. We believe that new organizational forms must be initiated to legitimize and support the resourceful functioning of community groups within the public schools. The ideas and skills depicted by the development of teaching teams, across-school teams, and management teams can help to fill a wide gap in this area.

Parent and community teams will tend to encounter a number of unique difficulties that few other educational teams face. For one thing, they possess virtually no formal legitimacy among educators. In fact, many professionals believe that organized parental input into the school program is inappropriate. Moreover, parent and community teams possess

very little formal legitimacy within the community at large. Few, if any, official channels exist through which community input and influence can be exercised, especially in relation to parents and community members as participants in the educational process. Those channels that do exist, such as those within the traditional PTA, do not support parent and community participation in teaching and learning. The absence of institutional legitimacy of parent teams in relation to the community gives rise to confusions and anxieties whenever some parents attempt to organize to improve the educational program. Questions arise as to who the neophyte groups represent and they are often criticized for not being adequately representative of the community at large. While questions and challenges of these sorts represent important concerns, they also can act to turn off the energies of embryonic groups of parents who desire to make constructive contributions to the school.

Other difficulties faced by parent and community groups are their disorganization, lack of traditions, and instability. In contrast to the teachers and the administrators, parents and community members are not formally employed by the public school district. They are not paid; they aren't expected to work a certain number of hours; and they do not possess job titles. Each of these features reinforces their lack of institutional legitimacy in relation to the educational procedures of the school. Any energy that is expended and any involvement that does arise are the results of community members' personal concerns and motivations and must be carried out on their own time. Obviously, the presence of such concerns and motives and the availability of time all vary greatly among parents and other community members. These factors serve to make parent groups relatively transient and unpredictable which, in turn, make the development of ef-

fective teams a very difficult objective to reach for parents and community members.

A significant characteristic of parent and community teams -- which goes along with their instability -- is their tendency towards a "crisis orientation." Parents tend to organize quickly around specific occurrences that have brought the community to a high level of emotional intensity, only to disband after the issue has been resolved or desensitized. Additionally, each new crisis brings together different parents and different parent leaders, thus, weakening the continuity of parent and community involvement as a single, cohesive team.

Another difficulty faced by parent and community groups is the inaccessability of relevant and accurate information about educational procedures. They usually do not have information about the considerations and the circumstances that lead up to a particular educational decision, and often they do not even know that a particular educational decision is being considered. Indeed, much of the information that they do have tends to come from carefully filtered presentations made by professionals, often after a final decision has been reached. This vacuum of relevant and valid information contributes to a situation in which rumors and half-truths can come to significantly affect school-community relations.

Several other characteristics also contribute to the difficulties of organizing parent and community educational teams. One is the wide variety of views and attitudes about educational philosophy, values, methods, and goals among community members. Such variety is particularly true in racially, economically, and ethnically mixed urban communities, where different sub-parts of the entire community approach schools with very different attitudes, behavioral styles, hopes, and fears. Associated

with this is the fact that subgroups within urban communities often have wide differences in educational backgrounds and in their abilities to think conceptually about educational problems. While such diversity can represent a rich source of ideas and strengths, too often these differences lead to conflict and competition among members of the community. Such intracommunity conflicts and cleavages tend to obscure the basic fact of the parents' interdependence in relation to the school, and to keep parents from coming together to influence the school program. The gap between recognized interdependence on the part of parents today and the amount of team-work required for effective action is the most basic community relations problem in education today.

In the face of these massive difficulties, embryonic parent and community groups can greatly benefit from skills in team development. They need to acquire and to use basic group skills in communication, goal clarification, dealing with conflict, problem solving, and decision making. A structural design for training parents in these skills would be the first step needed to reduce the disorganization and confusion characteristic of parent groups. The team development technology described elsewhere in this document offers such a structured design.

Student Teams

Student unrest and activism during the late 1960s helped to launch a movement toward involving students in educational problem solving and decision making. However, we have a long way to go before student teams are relating on parity with the professionals. Like the majority of our American institutions, secondary schools were not prepared for an upheaval in the power structure. School administrators were especially

unprepared to work in new ways with student leaders. Both the typical conservative and liberal stances seemed inadequate and open to criticism. What did evolve has been a serious attempt in many secondary schools to legitimize some student involvement in school-wide problem solving and decision making.

Several kinds of student involvement in school-wide matters have been tried, each drawing its own implications for the structure of student-school interaction. The most extreme form of involvement, tried in some alternative schools, gives student representatives voting power commensurate with that of the professionals and community representatives on such issues as budget, staffing, and curriculum. A more widely practiced means for involving students puts students on curriculum and governance bodies as advisors -- their functions are to provide information and opinions to those who are making the decisions and to serve as linkers between the faculty and the student body. Other forms of student involvement constitute a compromise between these two positions, giving students equal voting power on some issues and advisory rights on others. Any form of student involvement that is tried requires teamwork among the student representatives.

Many of the drawbacks associated with trying to build parents and community members into educational teams are similar to those faced by educators trying to develop student educational teams. Among students -- like with parents and community members -- there is a tendency for disorganization, instability, and massive differences in attitudes and cognitive styles. Students react vigorously to some isolated school-wide events but such energetic reactions are sporadic and unsystematic. They

do not maintain interest in the daily, more mundane aspects of the educational process. Students also tend to lack a great deal of information about the factors within the school district that undergird particular decisions and are prone to participate in rumors and to communicate half-truths about the school program. Their transient positions within the school also mitigate against concerted and continuous participation in school-wide matters.

A particular problem, perhaps unique to students, is being taken seriously when it comes to school-wide problem solving and decision making. Students in their low formal power position traditionally have been viewed as having little to offer about the ways school programs should be run. Additionally, many educators, and parents for that matter, tend to distrust student motives for desiring influence within the school. At worse, students are viewed as "trying to get away with as much as they can" and, therefore, not to be trusted to make responsible input into problem solving and decision making. Thus, even in those circumstances in which students are granted formal power, their level of involvement is superficial.

A recent study pointed to several additional barriers to student participation in school governance. For instance, there is the students' prior socialization to depend on adult authorities; there is the students' lack of political skills; and there is the creation by the adult professionals of school structures and procedures that are easy for the adults to dominate. Thus, if students are ever to evolve into a significant and contributing force for shaping the educational process, they will need the kind of team skills and organization that many educators already have in their teaching teams and management teams.

An alternative type of student team is found in the tutoring teams found both within schools and across schools. Within many elementary

schools, teams of 5th and 6th grade tutors work together to help 2nd and 3rd graders learn and develop. In some districts, teams of junior high students tutor elementary school youngsters, and high school students work in junior highs and with elementary students. These student teams enter directly into the educational process by taking over the teaching function. Perhaps, the avenue for more student involvement in school-wide matters is best traveled by building student tutoring teams and other sorts of student teams that enter directly into teaching and learning in the classroom.

Educator, Parent, Student Teams

As a result of pressures for increased parent and student involvement in school-wide matters, considerable interest has been generated in building heterogeneous teams of educators, parents, and students. It should be obvious that complex teams of this sort would suffer from all of the obstacles faced by the other teams already mentioned. Moreover, the typical role relationships among these three groups mitigate against building a highly cooperative and cohesive team.

Traditional role relationships among educators, parents, and students are typified by clear and shared differences in expert status, legitimate power, and appropriate rights and responsibilities. The educators are the experts and, therefore, are expected to make educational decisions. Educators and parents are older and have responsibility for guiding the younger generation because the youngsters are not sophisticated enough to guide themselves. And, the students are to wait for the educators and sometimes the parents to make important decisions about their educational programs.

To the extent that these traditional concepts and norms continue to be manifested in behavior within such heterogeneous groups, they serve to block genuine openness, collaboration, and joint problem solving. The initial subtask, then, of heterogeneous clusters that are attempting to become teams is to develop a new set of group agreements about how the interactions within the group will be expected to go. While discussions about paraphrasing, raising questions, solving problems, and making decisions will be crucial and should lend to some new agreements, the early stages of team formation in heterogeneous teams also will necessarily focus on issues of trust, frankness, and influence patterns within the group.

The ultimate goal of building heterogeneous teams is to bring educators, parents, and students more often into the same cycle of decision making. At the present time, these three bodies each have some degree of influence in relation to the schools, but each of their influence attempts do not typically occur within the same behavioral cycle. Within the educator subgroups administrators make a decision and attempt to take action to put it into effect. The teachers, students, and parents then react to the administrators' actions. Reactions of the teachers may come a few weeks after the initial administrative decision, while reactions of students and parents occur later. Administrators then react to these reactions and another sequence of cycles begins.

Teams made up of educators, parents, and students could bring influence from all subgroups to bear upon appropriate decisions before any full-scale effort to carry out the decision is set in motion. In other words, all segments -- the administrators, teachers, parents, and students -- would have influence upon the decision, share in converting the decision

into action; and react, more or less simultaneously, to the effects of the decision they shared in making. Naturally, all four segments of the school could not participate in every educational decision; such democracy would be virtually impossible and very inefficient. A central task, then, of the heterogeneous team is to develop criteria for assigning some decisions to all four segments and others to one, two, or three of the segments.

In many respects, educator, parent, and student teams represent the prototypes for teamwork in education. Ideally, they would act like minischools within themselves, bringing together the presses for interdependence and pluralism that exist in modern society and within public education. They can focus on academic tasks, guidance matters for the individuals, and school-wide problem solving and decision making. The trends seem to be in the direction of creating more and more such heterogeneous teams to cope with the demands of an increasingly more complex and complicated social order.

Annotated Bibliography

(Chapter 2)

Klausemeier, H.J., and R.J. Pellegrin. "The Multiunit School: A Differentiated Staffing Approach." In David S. Bushnell and Donald Rappaport (Eds.), Planned Change in Education: A Systems Approach. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1972.

This chapter describes the plan for structure and functioning of the multiunit school originated by the Wisconsin R&D Center for Cognitive Learning.

Malone, W.C. "The Team Concept in School Administration." The Clearing House, 47, 1973 , pps. 259 -262.

The senior high school administrative team described here exemplifies the strengths to be found in individuality and variety among team members who also possess expertise as administrators. The need for openness and support for disagreement before decisions are made and the public solidarity of consensus after decisions are made is also stressed. The article presents the six broad task areas and the allocations of these responsibilities among the three team members who administer the Pasco Comprehensive Senior High School in Dade City, Florida. There is discussion of how this particular organization of duties and people leads to a flexible, effective administrative team which also brings satisfaction to individual team members.

Morgan, F.W. Jr. "A Community-Involved 'Open' School." Education Digest, 39, 1973 , pps. 22-24.

A teacher in Vermont has learned ways to reach out into her community and involve men and women with her students and their education. She has not built a team, per se, but she has attracted citizens to the school and has managed a cooperative educational venture.

O'Keefe, P.A. "A Study of Coping -- The Inner City Teaching Team."
The Clearing House, 48, 1974 , pps. 329-331.

Interpersonal support among team members and guidance from a skilled specialist allowed this inner city junior high teaching team to survive its first year despite strong negative forces. Although this article does not detail how the survival was accomplished, it does give a strong sense of the difficulties and emotional turmoil that the team experienced. It also indicates the kinds of strength that team members gave to the building of their team.

Schreiner, K. "Capitalizing on the Differences of Your Teaching Staff."
School Management, 16, 1972 , pps. 30-31.

Differentiated staffing, "A personnel design and system of organization that seeks to make more effective and efficient use of human and nonhuman resources through a better definition of role, status, competencies, and reward," is briefly discussed in this article. The team roles are listed and current members of the Gold Pod team are described to demonstrate the variety of experiences and skills available to the 95 third graders in the Perry-Worth Elementary School.

Talton, Edward. "Student Council Volunteers Overcome Apathy." The Clearing House, 47, 1973 , pps. 483-485.

Planning, faculty leadership, commitment and student participation all are instrumental in building an effective student council team in DeLand Junior High School. The procedures used to select and launch the council were chosen in an effort to establish a strong team which would overcome the problems of weak student leadership, poor attendance, only a "faithful few" as members, inadequate minority group representation, and the disenchanted faculty sponsor.

Chapter 3

Processes in Educational Teams

An educational team of any type can be defined partly as a collection of persons who communicate face-to-face and who have some reciprocal influence in relation to one another. The educational team is featured by interpersonal interaction, task interdependence, shared goals, and an organized structure. We can refer to these features in general as the group processes of the team. Along with the formal work processes of the team, the informal processes of friendship, influence, prestige, and respect can also have decided effects on the ways in which the team performs. The most obvious work processes involve communication, goal-setting, managing cognitive conflicts, problem solving, and decision making. However, because of the power of the informal processes, teamwork is usually fraught with emotion and some sort of an interpersonal hidden world is inevitable for every member. Thus, both work and social-emotional processes come into play within educational teams.

Work and Social-Emotional Processes

Starting with the earliest literature in group dynamics, two general categories have been described as including the activities necessary for group effectiveness. These have been referred to as task functions and maintenance functions. We refer to them here as work and social-

emotional processes. The work processes help to accomplish the task-oriented, substantive goals of the team, while social-emotional processes help the team maintain its internal cohesion and interpersonal feelings of good will and mutual respect.

Work Processes. Work processes consist of those functions and activities that facilitate and coordinate the team's productivity. Among some examples are proposing team goals, defining a team problem, suggesting procedures for solving problems or for reaching goals, suggesting other ideas for consideration, and bringing ideas from outside of the team in at appropriate times. All of these examples call for an individual team member or two to initiate aspects of the work process. They are the typical activities that we might associate with task leadership.

Another important set of work processes have to do with information or opinion seeking and giving. Among some examples are requesting facts on a problem and offering facts; seeking relevant information and providing relevant information; and asking for suggestions and ideas and presenting the team with suggestions or ideas. An important activity for information or opinion seeking is to know how to take a survey of team members. In a survey any team member may ask for the opinions of all others at any time. The requesting member states what he wants to know from the entire team. Some other member then tries to clarify the survey query until all team members understand what they are being asked. Each member, in turn, briefly states his current information or opinion on the topic in two or three sentences. As soon as everyone in the team has stated his or her position, a team member should attempt to summarize where most team members are on the issue.

This last summarizing activity is associated with other work pro-

cesses. For example, interpreting or reflecting the ideas, opinions, or suggestions of others can be an important element of the work process. Also, clearing up confusion, giving examples, paraphrasing, and offering alternatives and issues before the group can help the team in pulling related ideas together.

Other important work processes are: defining the position of the team with respect to its goals, pointing to departures from agreed upon directions or goals, raising questions about the direction which the group discussion is taking, making a critical analysis of an idea; and testing an idea against some data from outside the team to see if the action plan would work.

Finally, it is very important for teams to include in their work processes such activities as: sending up "trial balloons" to see if group members are nearing agreement, checking with the team to see how much agreement has been reached on actions to be taken, and restating actions ideas after the group has discussed them. Later in this chapter, we shall discuss in more detail other work processes related to communication, goal-setting, conflict, problem solving and decision making.

Social-Emotional Processes. Social-emotional processes consist of those interpersonal behaviors that facilitate and coordinate the team's cohesiveness. Among some examples are: encouraging others to participate, behaving in warm, friendly, and responsive ways to others, showing acceptance for the contributions of others, actively listening to and paraphrasing the contributions of others, and showing regard for others by helping them to make a contribution or by giving them proper recognition. Behaviors, like these communicate emotional support for individuals and help individuals to feel higher self-esteem in the team.

Another cluster of social-emotional processes have to do with expressing thoughts and feelings that capture the mood of the team, sharing personal feelings with team members about how things are going, and suggesting that the team move back from its work to discuss the social-emotional processes. Behaviors like these can be initiated both when the individual member has good feelings, and when he or she has unfavorable feelings. It will be important in the latter case to paraphrase the meaning of the negative feelings for the team and to test out whether these negative reactions call for a change in the work processes.

Related to both cognitive and affective conflicts within the team are social-emotional processes such as attempting to reconcile disagreements, reducing tension by finding merits in both sides of an argument, getting people to explore their differences, offering to compromise one's own ideas or action recommendations, admitting error, and talking about mistakes one has made in arguing against another's position. These compromising behaviors help to manage and constructively work with intrateam conflict.

A very important cluster of social-emotional processes has to do with what is technically called gate-keeping in group dynamics. By gate-keeping, a team member sees to it that other team members get a chance to contribute. Moreover, gate-keeping also includes trying to keep a discussion from become a 1-, 2-, or 3-way conversation by calling upon the ideas and responses of others. Showing concern for the ideas and feelings of others as well as giving nonverbal nods of support to silent members also are gate-keeping, social-emotional processes.

Functional Processes

Ideally, most, if not all, team members will perform both work activities and social-emotional activities. Indeed, assuming leadership within a team can be defined as acting out any of the work and social-emotional processes described above at the appropriate time. Team leadership within a team, thus, is viewed as the performance of work processes and social-emotional processes that help the team achieve its preferred outcomes and it is most functional when all members are taking part. An observer could assess to what degree functional leadership is dispersed throughout a team by counting the numbers of work and social-emotional activities carried out by each member. The observer ideally would discover that -- over let us say an hour -- all team members carry out at least a few work and a few social-emotional activities. Such balanced participation will likely indicate that that team is being productive and will have a rather high degree of cohesiveness.

Dysfunctional Processes

Obviously, most educational teams do not achieve such ideal levels of performance and cohesiveness. Many of the members' behaviors are directed more toward satisfying personal needs than they are toward enhancing the work and social-emotional processes of the team. Often, some team members have difficulty in setting aside their relationships with people outside the team, bringing to team meetings tensions, anxieties, and reactions that are associated with others. Moreover, some team members in attempting to cope with the demands of the work or with their feelings of not being highly respected in the group will behave defensively or aggressively. Their feelings may be insecurity and distrust in relation

to other team members. Whereas some of these feelings of alienation can be productively handled in the group by proper work or social-emotional activities, often member's reactions are more dysfunctional since they lead the team away from building productivity and cohesiveness.

Among some typical examples of dysfunctional, self-oriented behaviors are: deflating another's status, putting down another person by criticizing them on an issue that has little to do with the team, attacking the team for not living up to expectations, disagreeing and opposing on the basis of personally oriented values rather than team goals, asserting superiority of "moral purpose" to manipulate the team, and interrupting others or making indirect disqualifying statements about others' contributions.

Often, members who are acting dysfunctionally will not be aware of how their behaviors are keeping the team from being productive and cohesive. Examples include: displaying an obvious lack of involvement by often coming late or by not verbally participating, abandoning the group while remaining physically with it, or by calling attention to oneself about matters that have little to do with the team's purposes. Sometimes dysfunctional behaviors include changing the subject to avoid commitment, hedging on giving an opinion, or failing to provide a direct answer to a direct question.

Dysfunctional processes for teams also include the nonpresence of particular work or social-emotional activities at the right time. For example, it can be detrimental to the work process to ignore a member's ideas, questions, or contributions. When the whole team does this it is referred to as "plopping." Equally dysfunctional is what is called "sand-bagging," whereby negative or critical reactions are withheld and stored up or when

members are given an opportunity -- as in a survey -- to present their opinions but withhold them from the team.

A serious dysfunctional pattern occurs when team members hold covert purposes for their team behavior that differ from their publicly stated or implied goals. Pleading for a special interest can be an example of such a hidden agenda. Also, the team member who tries covertly to undermine the team's productivity or cohesiveness by talking critically about the team outside of team meetings is manifesting an unconscious agenda to satisfy his or her own needs.

Finally, a not-so-obvious dysfunctional process occurs when members raise questions or make indirect statements instead of making direct statements. For example, a team member might ask, "Are you sure you want to do that?" When really he or she has a statement in mind such as "I can't imagine myself wanting to do that," or "I do not think you should do that; please say more about why you think doing that is a good idea!" In another example, a team member might state indirectly, "This group isn't practicing what it preaches," when he or she might more directly state, "I feel uncomfortable working with some member of this team."

Communication

Verbal and nonverbal messages constitute the core ingredients of what happens in face-to-face communication in teams. Although words are the principal formal means of communicating, the meaning of a verbal message is not based on words alone. It depends upon how team members interpret one's words as they are augmented by such nonverbal cues as bodily gestures, intonations, situational factors, and previous relationships with the communicator.

Consistency between the verbal and nonverbal messages enhances the likelihood that there will be clear and accurate communication occurring on the team. Moreover, when the directions of intended communication are aimed at only a few members of the team, information among all of the members will begin to flow less freely making it difficult for many of the team members to make valuable contributions to the work and social-emotional processes of the team. Physical positioning of the body often can lead to focused channels of communication and to a cutting off of others. When both verbal and nonverbal messages are limited or blocked, the likelihood of miscommunication and of misunderstanding of others' messages increases. And as miscommunication increases, distrust and defensiveness can become prominent deterrents to achieving team productivity and cohesiveness.

Types of functional communication. Communicative processes within teams typically are of three types: (1) the first type can be called "one-way input." In this type of communication the message is brought to the team by one member and is delivered in the form of a series of statements. A brief lecture about a new program would be an example of one-way input. While one-way input is proceeding, there is little chance for other team members to state their immediate reactions. A weakness of one-way input is that team members do not know clearly how many are accurately receiving the message. Often one-way input occurs in other ways besides face-to-face communication. Memos, bulletins over a loud-speaker, or printed announcements before team meetings all have qualities of one-way input. One-way input can be a very economical way of getting information across; however, it generally is not a reliable or effective way of transmitting complex information, since it increases the probability

that misunderstandings will occur.

(2) A process whereby one-way input can be made more reliable and effective is to follow it with feedback. In what we might refer to as "directive communication," one team member introduces a concept, an opinion or an action plan while another member attempts to show he or she understands the message. Typically, the receiver tries to paraphrase or summarize the key points that were just made by the person sending the message. Unfortunately, when the same team members continually act as the senders and others continually act as receivers, directive communication takes on an authoritarian quality. Little mutuality and reciprocity is occurring. Sometimes the one-sided power structure in the team is reinforced by the assumption that the sender who is delivering directive communication is correct. An example would be where a team leader reads off a list of rules about the school to team members and then questions others to see if they understand. While decreasing the possibility that miscommunication will occur, directive communication still is somewhat ineffective -- in terms of both team productivity and cohesiveness -- in that it does not include a reciprocal and equalitarian give and take about the issues under discussion.

(3) "Transactional communication" is a reciprocal and equalitarian process with each team member initiating messages (acting as the sender) and attempting to understand the other (being the receiver) in an alternating sequence. Transactional communication is cyclical and equalitarian with information traveling in both directions and with messages having impact on the next message. In addition, each team member is engaging in active listening. The listener is interested in understanding both the facts

and feelings that constitute the meaning of the sender's message. To do this, he or she checks what is heard with the sender. And the sender, in turn, shows interest in hearing the listener's reaction to his or her message. This sort of smooth give and take is fairly rare communicative process in many teams because it requires a great deal of skill and genuine concern on the part of the team members.

Miscommunication. Gaps between the message that is intended and the message that is received are miscommunications. They occur frequently in educational teams because messages sent often do not accurately reflect intentions. The sender is blind to the discrepancy between his or her intentions and the way the message comes out. Part of the answer to why messages do not reflect intentions is that certain behaviors are more difficult than others for persons to perform; some words, phrases, or mannerisms are not even incorporated into some people's behavioral repertoires, and they have no way to translate their intended meaning.

Discrepancies between intentions and messages also occur because of some confusion that lies between expressing oneself directly and trying to impress others so that they notice attractive attributes of the self. Thus, miscommunication arises when a team member attempts to hide relevant facts and feelings from others. Hiding behavior usually is associated with indirect message sending which leads to miscommunication. Sometimes two people will be engaging in miscommunication and neither of them will recognize it. In such instances, a third team member can be helpful in getting the two to focus on their mutual blind spots and hidden areas. When a third team member does not intercede, the miscommunications can significantly retard the group from acting in productive and cohesive ways.

Goal Clarification

Goal clarification is a vital part of the work processes of any educational team. A team's goals provide a framework for action and a standard by which to judge the effectiveness of those actions. Unclear or confusion of goals can result in the unnecessary expenditure of time and energy, actions that work at cross-purposes with each other, and feelings of frustration. Unclear goals are also often a source of conflict within the team. An effective team is able to alter its own work and social-emotional processes to pursue its goals effectively within a changing environment. It is able to reformulate its goals in response to changing needs. To do this, team members must have a clear notion of their goals and be able to communicate about them clearly.

In conceptualizing a goal, the team discusses a "place" or "state" toward which it is striving. The motivating factor that moves the team toward the new place or state is that it seems more desirable than where the team is now. And, thus, it is the discrepancy between where the team is now and where it would like to be that motivates it to action.

It is useful for team members to understand the relationship between team goals and personal values. Team goals are arrived at through communication among team members. They are a large part of the reason for having a team in the first place. Personal values, on the other hand, are not always reasoned nor are they agreed upon through team discussions. One member may value compliance from subordinates, while another might value critical and challenging responses.

Of course, the attractiveness of a team goal for any individual team member is partly dependent upon the extent to which the particular goal is in accord with his or her own values. Likewise, the motivation of

each team member to help the team move towards its goals, rests upon at least the possibility that he or she can realize personal values in the achievement of the team's goals and can satisfy personal motives for achievement, affiliation, and power during the process. Thus, the more a team's goals correspond to the motives and values of individual members, the more commitment team members will experience to those goals. It is an important work and social-emotional process for the team members to make accurate assessments of the extent to which team goals will, indeed, help individual team members to satisfy their motives and to maintain their personal values.

Goals are expressed both in word and deed. While they are made explicit through language, they are also inferred from action. Often there may be discrepancy between the stated motives of an individual or goals of a team and the motives or goals that can be inferred from their actions. For example, while all the members of a team of upper elementary grade teachers may verbalize the goal of "encouraging individual differences among their students," they may at the same time be acting in ways which require conformity and obedience from their students.

As this type of discrepancy between "stated" and "actual" goals becomes greater, it takes more and more energy on the part of the individuals involved to maintain the fiction of the announced goals. Energy is consumed inventing explanations of how the organization or team is "really" carrying out the stated goals. Team members may sometimes find themselves confused when asked to carry out actions that do not correspond to the official goals. This type of situation is often demoralizing and can result in a "credibility gap" within the team.

Conflict

Primarily because of different motives and values and because of differing perceptions and attitudes about team goals, conflict on teams is inevitable. Whether within an individual, between an individual and external circumstance, among individuals, or between the team and those outside of it, some conflict is bound to arise. Whether it is recognized or unrecognized, hidden, or overt, productive or unproductive, all teams will be faced with the need to manage conflict productively. Team members are by definition interdependent and required to collaborate. Whenever people work closely together, friction can arise. Conflict can grow about such things as differences in working style, differences in reaction to situations, competition for influence and responsibility, and disagreement about how things should be done. Often team members do not recognize that conflict exists nor are they clear what the conflict is about and who is involved in it. The effective team will openly discuss and attempt to deal with conflicts openly when the need arises.

Unless conflicts are brought out into the open, they will be disruptive to the team and will be handled in tacit, underground ways which may exaggerate and distort the issues. Conflicts brought into the open may well not disappear. In fact, conflict often can best be managed as an approach to negotiations and public discussion, as a basis for decisions, and as impetus to actions.

It is difficult for many people to be explicit and direct in dealing with conflict. A team that strives to benefit from its conflicts works at creating an atmosphere of constructive openness and overt confrontation of differences. Team members who do not feel threatened by conflict can do a great deal to ease tensions for team members by

their own example of openness, skill, and ease in dealing directly with conflict.

Before a team can begin to improve its management of conflict situations, the members must recognize that the conflict exists. Conflict can be hidden in a variety of ways. People may feel conflicts within themselves or between themselves and another person or outside situation, but because of fear of exposure or a norm against sharing feelings, they tend to hide the distress of conflict. Sometimes two or more people keep conflict hidden by never acknowledging it openly and directly, but by pointedly kidding and disguising the real issues as if they had no importance. Conflict can also be hidden because the people experiencing the tension and dissatisfaction don't understand its basis or see its origins. For example, two team leaders find themselves irritated because the requests they each have made within the leadership team of the principal for additional classroom equipment have not been granted. Neither knows of the other's request and, thus, they don't realize that they are competing with each other for the limited budget allowance for new equipment. This conflict will remain hidden unless the principal, who knows of the budget limitation and the two requests, brings the information out into the open for discussion with the two team leaders at the same time.

After discovering where the conflicts exist in the team, team members begin to determine what people and resources are involved and whether the conflict is energizing to the team or destructive. Conflict can urge people to explain alternatives and make use of resources which otherwise could go unrecognized; conflict can also sap energy and demoralize people so that they can no longer get their work done. Even though the

adjustment may unnecessarily drain team energy or keep the team from working with full information on some of its tasks, conflict opened up and left untended can be more destructive to team functioning than if it wasn't opened up in the first place.

We see five basic sources of conflict in educational teams: (1) differentiation of function among members of the team, (2) struggles for influence and power, (3) role conflicts, (4) stress imposed on the team from without, and (5) differences in interpersonal style.

Differentiation of function among members of the team exists, at least in part, because different segments of the team communicate with different segments of the environment. For example, in a management team, the building administrator may be primarily responsible for communicating with the central office, or parent groups while the assistant administrators or head teachers communicate primarily with the teachers. As a result of this differentiation, the team members involved will invariably have access to different sources of information and will be subject to varying pressures and influences. These differences are bound to affect their values and result in different strategies for how to accomplish their primary tasks. Obviously, these differences will result in conflict among team members.

Struggles for power and influence occur when some team members try to gain an advantage over others. Competition for more attractive positions in the school or in policy decisions that effect conflicting self-interests give rise to such struggles. Struggles for influence and power, also, tend to generate out of the scarcity of resources. The desire to increase one's influence over the educational goals and instructional program are another source of conflict among team members.

Another source of conflict in teams is role conflict. On one level, a team is comprised of persons interacting in certain roles, and it is possible to understand much of a team member's behavior by understanding his role relationships with others on the team. These "others" on the team constitute each team member's "role set," and the expectations of the role set strongly influence the job related behaviors of each member of the team. It is when a team member does not fulfill the expectations of part of his role set that role conflict occurs.

There are several reasons why individual team members may not conform to the expectations of members of their role set. Often the messages received from others are contradictory. Following the expectations of the principal, for example, may violate important norms of a teaching team. Or different persons within a role set may have diverse expectations, among which the individual may have to choose. Sometimes, for example, a new teacher may have to choose between the goals for which her college professor taught her to strive and the different goals of the teaching team. Another factor has to do with interrole conflict. Most persons have multiple roles in an organization. An individual may belong to a teaching team, the head of a curriculum committee, a member of a planning committee, and a representative of the teachers' association. He will often have to choose between the expectations of the different role sets with whom he interacts. Role overload is another reason for conflict. When the expectations of members of the various role sets are too demanding, it may be impossible to satisfy all of them. Finally, role conflict often arises when the person himself does not want to comply with the expectations of members of his role set. He may find such expectations in conflict with his personal values, personally uninteresting to him, in violation of his professional

orientation to the work, or different from his own perception of the facts of a particular situation.

Conflict within the team may also be a reflection of stress from without. Conflicts in the larger school culture, the community, or even society at large over issues such as controversial curricula, decentralization of control, busing, etc., can be reflected within the individual educational team. Diverse inputs from the community, parent, and student groups are likely to increase this type of conflict.

Another source of conflict in teams can be differences in interpersonal style among team members. All team members come to the team with a unique set of needs, experiences, ways of coping with stress, and a preferred rhythm and style of getting things done. As team members interact, these personal qualities and styles affect one another. When these interpersonal styles compliment or support one another, a productive and flexible collaborative relationship is easily attained. At times, however, interpersonal styles can work against one another creating irritation and annoyance and can become a source of conflict that can be destructive to the team.

Problem Solving

Problem solving is a continuing part of the work of any team. The more skillfully a team can deal with its problems, the small as well as large ones, the more smoothly all the work of the team will go, the better the interpersonal relationships will be and the higher the individual member's satisfaction will be.

A problem can be defined as the difference between the way things are and the way ideally they might be. The amount of tension that

builds around this difference is one measure of the severity of a particular problem. Even when the difference between the current situation and the future goal is very great, the problem can be a small one if team members don't find the difference hard to live with. Conversely, a small difference could mean a large problem if team members feel great tension about it.

Problems -- differences between what is and what might be -- can be mainly within one person (intrapersonal), between very few people (interpersonal) in a team, between teams, etc. It would be rare that a problem existed exclusively at one level; a problem that exists between two people on the team will likely affect the other team members and their working together as well.

Problems often are allowed to reach crisis proportion before anyone tried to deal with them. In the tension of the necessity for finding an immediate solution for a problem, team members who want to solve the problem may overlook available resources and lose possible solutions. Problems may also be attacked prematurely -- before they are adequately described and understood. When problems are "solved" too early they are usually not solved at all.

Another difficulty with problem solving -- one that arises from organizational structure and hope for expediency -- is that someone in authority such as the formal team leader will try to take care of things by removing what he or she sees as the cause of the problem or by implementing a solution. Often, this is not adequate. The person is not likely to have sufficient information to solve the problem effectively, while others who are affected by the solution and have no real role in creating that solution may not be committed to carrying out the solution.

There are also potential difficulties in including team members in problem-solving efforts. While more ideas can be generated by groups of four to eight people than by a single individual, it is also true that people in groups may not feel free enough to share their ideas with others whom they see as more powerful and potentially punishing. Some may be hesitant to ask for information from others in the team for fear of appearing ignorant. Team members may become involved in collaborative work at different rates and may be out of phase with others working in the team. It is also important to realize that problems will probably not stay solved forever. A problem can crop up again and again because situations don't remain static -- especially today with changing technologies and philosophies and mobile population groups. The problem of students arriving late to school may be taken care of for a while by letting parents know when their children are arriving late and asking them to see that their children be in school on time. This solution may not work out as well as hoped and there the problem is again. Or, the solution may work for a while but as an example, because more parents are going to work before students leave for school or because students find it a "waste of time" to be in school first period tardiness again becomes a problem.

Shifts in school personnel may also lead to the recurrence of a problem which had been solved. The fifth and sixth grade teaching team may have had an agreement whereby physical education was taught to both classes by the fifth grade teacher in exchange for the sixth grade teacher handling the Spanish instruction. When the sixth grade teacher leaves and is replaced by a new teacher who does not have competency in Spanish, a problem once solved arises again.

Decision Making

How decisions are made reveals a good deal about a team. It indicates such things as where the power is, who is probably most involved in the work, and who is actually responsible for what is going on. The choice of which of the range of decision-making procedures -- individual decisions, majority decisions, consensus decisions -- to use should relate to the wise use of team members' time and effort. Perhaps the most important decision that a team makes is who will take part in what kinds of decisions.

Those who take part in the actual making of a decision are more likely to be committed to the decision than are those to whom the decision is merely handed down. Therefore, if it is important to have the cooperation and commitment of a large number of people in order to carry out plans about which decisions have to be made, it is important to involve these people and to make use of their experience and expertise in the decision-making process.

If a decision has an effect on only a few people or only has a small effect on the group members, it can perhaps be made most efficiently by a concerned minority or by one individual. For example, the information needed by the school nurse for the student health card is not a decision that would wisely use the time of the total staff or even of a teaching team.

Team members who contribute to the making of a decision are exercising influence within the team structure. The sharing of influence leads to the sharing of responsibility and greater involvement of team members in what the team does. This leads to greater satisfaction for the members as well as wider opportunity for the use of team resources.

There are a large number of ways in which a team can go about making decisions. Too often an educational team makes a decision by abdication wherein all team members do what they want regardless of the discussion. This is like a "non-decision," but nevertheless the team is taking a particular set of actions which in reality mean that it has decided to let every member do as he or she wishes. Another frequently used decision-making process on educational teams is to have an authority person like the formal team leader or perhaps a substantive expert make the decision. Here the group relies on a single person or two to integrate all of the team's information and to come up with the best decision. Other methods include letting a small minority subgroup decide, taking majority vote, and striving for consensus. Let us describe the most frequently used methods on educational teams.

Individual or minority decisions. These kinds of decisions can be efficient and take up very little group time. For decisions which do not require high commitment from others in order to be carried out, it is no doubt the most useful. It also may be a relief to a tired, conflicted group to have someone, anyone, move out and make a decision. The quality of such decisions can be very good if the decider has expertise in the area to be decided about or has sought expert advice. The commitment of others to an individual decision may well be slight even if they have been asked for advice. If a good deal of effort is required to carry out the decisions, the uncommitted members may well not be willing to contribute much.

Majority decisions. Most Americans are familiar with votes by majority decision. Discussions leading up to such votes bring out the ideas and resources of more members than come out when minority decisions are made, but it is still likely that only some of the team members will

contribute to the decision. This means there are group resources which are lost. People trying to convince each other to join a majority will talk about what alternatives are most likely to be acceptable but probably will not get information about what choices would be totally unacceptable to some members. Discussion for majority vote usually ends when some members of the team believe their side can win. This may well leave a sizable number of team members unrepresented. Although many people will "go along" with the majority, if a decision requires cooperation from the total team, it is possible that a minority member may feel alienated enough to sabotage or drag back the team effort.

There are decisions where majority vote is practical and successful. If it is unnecessary for everyone to agree because not everyone need participate in the carrying out of a decision, simple majority vote is useful. If dissension within a team is such that total agreement is impossible or if a team is very large, a percentage majority vote may be useful. For example, if 80 percent of a team can agree on a solution, the team may decide that is sufficient agreement to go ahead.

Consensus decision. The kind of decision which is most likely to bring out the ideas and resources of all team members and is least liable to sabotage is made by consensus. A consensus decision does not mean the team has reached unanimous agreement. It does mean, however, that each member can paraphrase the decision to show that he understands it, that each member has had the opportunity to express his feelings about the decision, and that whether or not each member agrees he will at least publicly say he is willing to go with the decision for a specified period of time. In this way, each member of the team has showed his expertise and resources and no one is left out of the final decision. Everyone is at least willing

not to sabotage the decision.

Decision by consensus is neither easy nor quick. Conflict is unavoidable and people's resources are called on to work through the areas of disagreement. Interpersonal skills and imagination are required throughout the discussions. Each team member must put effort into the decision process. Teams which practice consensus become more skillful at working out decisions as they get to know one another.

Annotated Bibliography

(Chapter 3)

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Looks at the person in relation to tension systems, differentiation, and isolation, as well as in direct communication with his environment. Discusses change in social systems, the concept of role, and characteristics of institutional groups. Cites major principles of institutional changes: two-way communication with continuous participation and feedback, and role differences between levels which create barriers to problem solving within a group and resistance to change within the individual.

Harrison, R. Group Composition Models for Laboratory Design. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1965, 1, 409-432.

Describes the ways certain emotional needs of individuals can combine with those of others in groups so as to help or hinder the work of the group. If individuals have usually guided their interactions with others primarily by one dimension (such as power), they will have difficulty acting according to another dimension (such as affiliation) unless they first try acting at the other end of the dimension customarily used; that is, people who usually try to dominate others should first try being submissive -- then they would be better able to conceive how affiliation differs from dominance.

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Tesch, F.E., L.M. Lansky, and D.C. Lundgren. The one-way/two-way Communication Exercise: Some Ghosts Laid to Rest. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1972, 8(6), 664-673.

... there was no difference in difficulty between the two diagrams. Further, two-way communication was, as predicted, more accurate, more satisfying, and more time-consuming than was one-way communication. Finally, there was no practice effect in moving from a one- to a two-way communication, but significant transfer occurred in the reversed condition.

Chapter 4

Indicators of Team Effectiveness

How effectively an educational team is performing is not readily apparent to the casual observer. Group productivity, especially in educational settings, tends to be an obscure and difficult concept to measure. The subtle activities, moreover, that help an educational team achieve a high level of effectiveness are even more difficult to assess. Our point of departure for understanding team productivity encompasses three "meta goals" which we believe are emblematic of team effectiveness. These goals are adaptability, productivity, and satisfaction.

Adaptability

Adaptability refers to a system's ability to restructure or change itself in a manner which enhances its potential for growth or survival in relation to its environment. This flexible style of adaptation involves at least three basic elements: receptivity to the environment; accessibility of the system's own internal resources; and responsiveness to the environment.

Before discussing each of these basic elements, let us concretize the concept of adaptability by describing a number of behavioral responses that are indicative that an educational team is acting adaptively:

(1) The team tends to discuss its own goals, and the description of goals is specific and clearly understood by every member. As a concrete example, a parent-playground committee may decide to enlarge the children's

play area to accomodate two classes at one time and to allow for activities such as climbing, digging, running, and baseball. The cost might be within the limits of the PTA budget and the district's allocation for maintaining the grounds. This team has specifically stated, feasible goals.

(2) The team has an explicit way of knowing when it is moving towards its goals and when its actions are not commensurate with its goals. Using the example of the parent-playground committee, the team can see that it is making progress when its plans for action go into effect. Comparisons can be made with other playgrounds in the community and neighboring communities to measure how this particular plan is taking effect.

(3) The team compares its movement toward its goals with earlier plans and tries to make adjustments as it moves toward its goals. The playground committee will continuously estimate costs while it is purchasing materials for the play area and make changes in later parts of the plan if the budget is spent at a faster rate than expected.

(4) The team engages in a problem-solving process for changing its methods of moving toward goals when things are not moving well. The playground committee that finds parts of the plan will not accomodate very young students or that it will not accomodate behaviorally disabled students can quickly return to problem-solving discussions to brainstorm ways of modifying the plan.

(5) The team maintains ready access to its internal resources so as not to miss available alternatives for action. The playground committee decides to turn to an expert on early childhood education known by one of its members. The expert helps the team to evaluate its brainstormed ideas on how to change the plan to accomodate very young students.

(6) The team has an efficient way of setting new action steps in

motion toward the goal when such steps are needed. Plans are not so rigidly made that they cannot be changed and individuals are not so closely tied to their proposals that a change in plans becomes a painful, personal issue. The playground committee is able to quickly mobilize additional committee members to help the builders when it is necessary to remove some already installed equipment. The newly organized subgroup of builders is quickly able to cooperate to get the job done.

The qualities of adaptability can further be described as three social processes that occur in teams: (1) receptivity, (2) accessibility, and (3) responsiveness.

Receptivity to the environment. Receptivity or openness to the environment is a quality that enables the team to get information clearly and quickly about those things that are going on in the external environment. Educational teams in schools that are becoming more open to the variety and complexity of their own communities; schools that are struggling with desegregation, community control, and pluralistic influences are required to have a particularly high level of receptivity. In order to "keep up" educational teams must be able to listen to a wide range of views and maintain varied sources of information to decide effectively what is important to incorporate into their own goals and work. Often pieces of information will conflict with one another -- either because perception of facts may vary or because values placed on actions and ideas differ -- and the team must find a way to deal with these sorts of conflicting inputs. Receptivity to the environment is shown by a team's readiness to discuss how others view it and what others' reactions are to the team's performance.

Accessibility of internal resources. Another important feature of adaptability is the ability of an educational team to be aware of and to

make use of its own members' resources in order to do things in creative ways. A team can be effective when it maintains accessibility to what systems theorists call its variety pool. A variety pool on a team connotes those ideas and potentials for new actions that are already present among the team's members.

To make effective use of its variety pool, members maintain flexible expectations about one another, maintain attitudes that encourage risk taking and are aware of the diversity of possible skills which can be developed when needed. A remedial reading teacher may well have woodworking skills and knowledge useful to the playground committee. The music teacher may know important community people who can help find funds for special projects. A team functioning within a school whose norms accept or encourage innovation and change will find it easier to make use of its variety pool.

Responsiveness to the environment. If an educational team is to be able to make use of information it receives and the variety of ideas and skills available among its members, it must also be able to act as well as talk and plan. This ability to act on the basis of information is called responsiveness. An educational team's capacity for responsiveness is based on its members' ability to act in coordinated and cooperative ways. Thus, responsiveness grows out of productive cooperation after information has been received by the team and after the internal resources have been mobilized.

It is important to distinguish between responsiveness and reaction. A "reaction" to community criticism of a school's reading program can represent a defensive stance by the teachers and a retreat behind professional studies and expertise; it can be simply doing something just because something else has occurred. A "response" to criticism might well include the

use of professional studies and expertise but the action would grow from a consideration of the criticism and of opinions sought from other parts of the school community, and an evaluation of the reading program and the performance of the students going through it. Responsiveness is action that is planned on the basis of information gathered, considered and evaluated; it is carried out in flexible and adaptive ways.

Productivity

It is of course vital that a team get its work done -- that is a team should be productive if we are to say it is acting effectively. The playground committee ultimately must build a practical and useful play area to accomodate all students in the school. The teaching team must help all of the students to learn to read. The management team must hire new teachers on time and see to it that resources from the central office reach the school at the correct times.

Productivity should be measured, in part, in relation to the team's potential performance. Some educational teams present the outward appearance of group productivity when two or three members work diligently, carrying out the tasks at hand and bearing the burdens of their non-productive, low effort colleagues. Such a pattern does not constitute team productivity. Even though the tasks are getting done on time, the work efforts are not making use of the full range of individual resources. In such instances, the variety pool is not being well used. The team's productivity is more limited than would be the work efforts of a fully functioning team.

In order to be productive, team members must share and accept common goals, must be able to collaborate and cooperate, must at times relegate individual motives to a lower order of priority than group goals, and must have methods for solving problems, making decisions, and assessing pro-

gress. Above all, the productive team keeps communication open and direct during its meetings, whether the focus is problem solving, decision making, or simple information sharing.

Satisfaction

Along with getting its work done, team members can feel good about themselves, can feel they are fulfilling some of their personal goals, and thus, can feel a sense of challenge and growth. Team members who feel useful to the group and its work, who think their abilities are important to and appreciated by others, who feel they are developing their potential, will have a sense of personal fulfillment. Satisfaction as used here is not synonymous with contentment nor is it a static state. We understand satisfaction to result from growth and the response to challenge. It comes from actively meeting difficulties and actively taking part in planning that will eventuate in action. Satisfaction results from individuals becoming more conscious of their own potential and becoming better able to realize their potential in ways that make sense to themselves and their team members.

Critical Team Activities

The meta goals of adaptability, productivity, and satisfaction are expressed within educational teams in a variety of ways. It is useful for team members to have some guideposts for checking on how the team is performing in relation to these rather abstract goals. The following critical activities represent such guideposts for assessing team effectiveness on a continuous basis.

Goal clarity. Adaptability, productivity, and satisfaction all involve goal clarity. Implicit in adaptability is the ability for a team to describe its goals and to be conscious of how the team is progressing toward these goals. Team goals need to be clear to all members, and objectively

stated. The goals that are declared should be the same as the goals acted upon. The less similarity there is between stated goals and actual goal-directed behavior, the less likely it is that the team will be able to act adaptively.

The productivity of a team is dependent on the team's members learning what they are supposed to be doing, and what their mutual goals are. It is important that members are clear about what they are doing and also about how they plan to do it. If different members have different ideas of what the team wants to accomplish, they will not work well together and may work at cross purposes. If only some members favor the designated goals and others think they are useless, those not committed will not work effectively. If the goals designated by the team are ones they believe outside subgroups and authorities wish them to achieve, but which they themselves find trivial or undesirable, team members will lose a great deal of energy keeping up the trivial goal and will likely achieve very little.

Satisfaction is dependent upon the compatibility of group goals and individual goals. It is important that these two goal-clusters are clear and that they are not in serious conflict. It is certainly not necessary that all individuals' goals are met by team activities, but hopefully some individual goal for each member can be a part of the group goal. It is difficult for team members to find real satisfaction in the team activities unless some of their personal goals are realized through their participation in the team.

Communication. Team functioning suffers when communication is poor. Adaptability demands effective communication skills and the possibility of clear discussion and sharing about goals and actions. A team that tries to work under conditions of limited two-way communication will soon be struggling

hard and unnecessarily just to get clear what people are supposed to be doing. Satisfaction for individual members will be difficult to achieve if those individuals cannot clearly share their personal goals and their perceptions, feelings, and understanding about one another and the team's work. The critical communication skills which are indicative of effective team action involve (1) paraphrasing so that others realize that you understand them, (2) describing behaviors concretely and clearly so that others know what team processes you are referring to, (3) describing one's own feelings directly and tactfully, and (4) checking how others are feeling directly and tactfully.

Problem solving. Adaptability becomes actualized through the problem-solving activities of the team. Team members should ask: Have we gathered sufficient information so we can define the problem clearly? Are we being receptive to information about us from outside the team? Are we clear on where we want to go? Are we using the variety of skills and abilities that we have within the team? Are we being creative when we do brainstorming? Are we following through on our action ideas?

An adaptive educational team has flexible ways of dealing with its problems. The problem solving procedures will differ depending on the speed with which new action is required, importance of the new actions to the whole team, and how many team members will become involved in carrying out the new actions. Not all problems should be approached in the same way. An educational team in which one member takes on the responsibility of dealing with major difficulties may act on problems quickly but will also meet them at some cost to himself or herself and at a cost to building the team into a productive unit. Conversely, an educational team that always runs through a thorough problem-solving sequence before reaching any plan for action will

involve all members and consider many aspects and solutions; however, it will also exhaust its energies and often will be working out possibilities for action even after it is too late to act effectively.

Decision-making. Adaptability, productivity, and satisfaction are related to patterns of decision-making in educational teams. Regardless of what decision-making procedures are used, the most important aspect of decision making for team effectiveness is its clarity. Teams in which decision-making procedures are ambiguous will typically not react adaptively to the changing environment.

Along with clarity about how decisions are to be made, effective teams will use consensus discussion procedures. They will attempt to bring out minority, even unpopular, points of view; will make sure all points of view are paraphrased so that all understand them; will seek compromises and creative solutions to differences; will try out new actions for scheduled periods, and reevaluate how beneficial the new actions have become to the team. Educational teams will find that virtual unanimity will be required for critical decisions. But they will also find that there are many issues that do not justify joint decision making. Effective teams will develop a clear distinction between these two types of decisions.

The Importance of Team Meetings

Team meetings constitute the stage on which many of the critical activities described above are played out. Along with checking for goal clarity, communication, problem solving, and decision making during team meetings, three additional clusters of activities indicate how effectively the team is acting: (1) the balance of work and social-emotional processes, (2) the sequencing or structure of the meeting, and (3) the thoughts and feelings of members after the meeting is over.

Work and social-emotional processes. To build an effective team, it is important for team members to engage in both work and social-emotional activities during their meetings. Also, members should be able to perform either of these types of activities depending on the needs of the team at any given time. Sometimes, symptoms of difficulty may arise during team meetings, such as repetition of obvious points, polarization of team members, recurrent conflict among particular members, or apathetic participation. When such disturbing events arise, team members should shift away from task matters and attend to social-emotional factors to understand and deal with the obstacles. Conversely, team members should guard against getting "hung up" by only focussing on social-emotional matters while deemphasizing task issues. A balance is desirable and the effective educational team will develop its own comfortable rhythm for alternating between work and social-emotional processes.

Sequencing during the meeting. An effective team meeting typically commences by establishing clarify about the specific goals of the meeting. Quickly reviewing an agenda is one way of clarifying the meeting's goals. Next, it is very important for team members to understand how the work of the meeting will be conducted. Setting priorities and estimating time allotments are beneficial in planning the meeting and in concretizing how the meeting's goals will be achieved. The bulk of the meeting is then focused on carrying out the agenda and its priorities as planned. After the agenda has been implemented for some time, team members should review and evaluate how well the meeting's activities have met the team's larger work goals. Finally, an effective team will allow for time at the middle or at the end of the meeting to discuss the social-emotional processes that occurred during the meeting. We refer to this discussion on social-emotional processes as a

"meeting debriefing."

Members thoughts and feelings. After the meeting is over, it is important to collect information about the cognitive and affective reactions of the members to the meeting. Important questions to assess the team's effectiveness are: Do members end up with a clear idea of what was discussed or decided, or are they confused and need to check with the formal team leader at a later time? Do the decisions that were made at the meeting or the actions that were planned, get carried out? Are there opinions and feelings that were not expressed during the meeting that only get expressed in two- or three-way conversations after the meeting is over? Do members leave the meeting with a sense of satisfaction and accomplishments or senses of boredom or frustration? Answers to queries such as these will give an indication of how effective the meeting was and of how effectively the team is acting.

Recognizing an effective meeting. Along with the above three clusters of meeting behavior, there are additional behaviors that can serve as guideposts in assessing how well a team is performing. These are as follows:

(1) Team members do not ignore seriously intended contributions.

It is important for team members to know the effect of their remarks on other team members. When other members do not respond, speakers cannot know whether they did not hear their remark, or whether they understood it and agreed with it, or understood it but disagreed with it, or whether they thought it was irrelevant. Team members whose contributions are ignored will tend to become discouraged and not continue to participate. This will ultimately limit the team's use of all of its resources.

(2) Team members check to make sure they know what a speaker means

before they agree or disagree with his or her contribution. There is frequent use of paraphrase, impression checks and summaries to clarify assumptions about what others are meaning and feeling.

(3) Team members speak for themselves. Team members state that their reactions are their own. They do not attribute them to others or give the impression they are speaking for others. They try to stay away from statements like "most teachers feel" or "students would appreciate," etc.

(4) All contributions are viewed as belonging to the group, to be used or not as the group decides. Team members who make suggestions do not have to defend them against others. The entire group assumes responsibility for evaluating it, along with all other suggestions.

(5) Team members participate in different but complimentary ways. While some team members are fulfilling work functions, others carry out social-emotional functions. Thus, while some members may be providing information, others are attending to members reactions to it. Also, members participate in the work as it reflects their interests and capacities.

(6) Whenever the team senses it is having trouble getting work done, it tries to find the reason. Team members are easily able to shift the discussion from the work to social-emotional issues when symptoms of difficulty arise, like hair-splitting, obvious points are repeated over and over, polarization of the team, apathetic participation, etc.

(7) Team members recognize that they are always making decisions, and they do openly and purposefully, rather than by default. On any issue the team may decide to take action or not to take action. They can decide openly not to take action, or they can take no action by default. Decisions by default are often unclear and are felt as failures by team members and create tension and a low sense of commitment among them. Also, team members

tend to see each decision as an experiment which can be carried out, evaluated, and revised in the light of experience. Also, team members are aware, in each case, of how the decision is going to be made.

(8) Team members express disagreement and bring conflict out into the open and deal with it. Members recognize that conflict is inevitable and may even be valuable to the team. They know that the choice is theirs as to whether the conflict will be open and subject to team control, or disguised, and out of team control.

Annotated Bibliography

(Chapter 4)

Cartwright, D. and R. Lippitt, "Group Dynamics and the Individual" in International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 7(1), 1957, pp. 86-102.

This discussion of the relation between individuals and groups centers on conformity pressures which can foster heterogeneity or uniformity of thinking and behavior and on the potential strengthening of both individuals and groups by qualitative improvements in the nature of interdependence between integrated individuals and cohesive groups. Individual satisfaction, group productivity, and adaptability are affected by the quality of relationships between the individual members and the team.

Gibb, J.R. and L.M. Gibb, "Humanistic Elements in Group Growth" from J. Bugenbal, Challenges in Humanistic Psychology, pp. 161-170. McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1967.

The authors' research indicates four significant and interdependent dimensions which are relevant to group health: (1) the degree of reciprocal trust among members; (2) the validity of the feedback system and effectiveness of consensual decision making; (3) the determination and assessment of group goals; and (4) the degree of real interdependence in the system; are important indicators of the quality of group functioning.

Gilmore, S.K., The Counselor in Training. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973, pp. 230-261.

Communication processes are described and exemplified in pp. 230-261. Although the book is directed to beginning counselors the communication practice and explanations are useful to a group who wants to understand and improve their communication behaviors. Such things as nonverbal behavior, paraphrasing, perception checking and description of behavior and feelings are included.

Hare, P.A., E.F. Borgatta, and R.F. Bales, (Eds.), Small Groups: Studies in Social Action. A.A. Knopf, Revised edition, 1965.

A good, though old (originally published in 1955) collection of writings on the historical and theoretical background of groups, the individual in social situations and the group as a system of social interaction. Such specifics as decision making, leadership, feedback and communication, and problem solving are subjects of the articles included.

Hinton, B.L., and H.J. Rice, Groups and Organizations. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1971.

A number of readings on group and organizational theory and functioning. Quite a few of the articles discuss conflict within and between groups. There are also articles on cohesiveness, leadership, decision making, etc.

Katz, D. and R.L. Kahn. "The Psychological Basis of Organizational Effectiveness," in Katz and Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966, pp. 336-389.

This chapter develops a framework for understanding the

relationship between behaviors that are required to achieve high levels of organizational effectiveness and various motivational patterns inherent in the structure of organizations. Four motivational patterns, i.e., (1) legal compliance, (2) instrumental satisfaction, (3) self-expression, and (4) internalization of organizational goals, are each analyzed in terms of its ability to generate three patterns of behavior required for organizational effectiveness, i.e., (1) joining and remaining in the organization, (2) dependably performing assigned roles, and (3) engaging in occasional innovative and cooperative behavior. The chapter concludes with a review of the empirical research that bears upon the framework.

Lambert, W.W. and W.E. Lambert, Social Psychology, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964. Chapter 6, "The Individual in Group Settings."

This chapter discusses the effects of group membership on the behavior of individuals. Some ideas about conformity, leadership, group communication networks, democratic-autocratic and cooperative-competitive group structures and intergroup conflict are briefly stated and exemplified.

Lippitt, G.L. Organization Renewal. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1969, p. 315.

The author blends behavioral and managerial science with his own experience in presenting a frame of reference for initiating and maintaining organization renewal processes. The chapter on work groups in organizations is a theoretical discus-

sion of teamwork in terms of what factors affect group effectiveness; what is characteristic of teamwork and a "healthy" team and how can a leader contribute to effective group functioning.

Steiner, I.D., Group Process and Productivity. New York and London: Adademic Press, 1972.

How well a group performs a task depends on three classes of variables: task demands, resources and process. Task demands include the requirements imposed by the task itself or by the rules under which the task must be performed. Resources include all relevant knowledge, abilities, skills, or tools possessed by the individuals attempting to perform the task. Process consists of the actual steps taken by an individual or group when confronted by a task, the individual or collective actions of those who have been assigned a task. The discussion covers types of tasks, effects of group size and group heterogeneity and homogeneity, a note on cohesion and a final chapter on the group as a system and on group process.

Wallen, J. "The Interpersonal Gap," in Schmuck and Runkel Handbook of Organization Development in Schools, National Press Books, 1972. Pp. 82-86.

In this article, Wallen notes that the difference between the effect that one's actions actually produce in another person and the effect that one intends to produce is often quite large. He calls this discrepancy the "interpersonal gap." Both intentions and effects are private. Only actions are observable and their meaning is ambiguous. This is the dilemma posed by the interpersonal gap.

Chapter 5

Convening Educational Teams

We have already described the importance of face-to-face interactions for a team's functioning. Most of the important work and social-emotional processes can be seen at meetings. By attending to interpersonal interactions at team meetings, the team member can discern the team's behavioral norms which, in turn, reflect the team's goals, approved procedures, and affective climate. The kinds of communication encouraged at team meetings indicate the expectations and skills members use to coordinate their efforts. The amount of time devoted to goal setting and goal refining indicates the importance team members give them in relation to other activities. Assumptions shared about the functions of conflict can be noted in the ways in which opposing views are uncovered and handled. Comparisons also can be made among problem-solving and decision-making activities to understand how team members have organized to accomplish their tasks. Finally, one can watch the degree to which participants comment on the ways in which they conduct their meetings, and attend to how they assess changes in their group processes.

Role of the Convener

Educational teams work more effectively in meetings when a member is clearly designated as the convener for the session. The convener acts as the discussion leader, facilitating yet not dominating the communications.

The convener is not to act passively, but forcefully and definitely in relation to the team's work and social-emotional processes.

Tasks of the team are important to the convener, but so are the ways that the team accomplishes its tasks. The convener steers the group to discuss its social-emotional processes when that would be helpful. She or he should be aware of team members who appear to be outside of the discussion. At the same time, the convener must be conscious of time and help move the team along. In our model of how teams should act during meetings, the convener owns the legitimate authority for conducting the meeting and thus should like the official leader of the team during the meeting.

No matter how important the convener feels the discussion to be at some particular moment, he or she should remember that the group members have made an implicit pact to discuss certain items during the meeting and to end at a stated time. If the team seems to be taking too much time for one agenda item, the convener should call this to the attention of the team, and ask something such as, "Do you wish to subtract time from other items, cancel one or more items, extend the meeting, or what?" Conveners should demand a procedural decision, but they need not choose a solution or even suggest one. The team is usually capable of doing this; when they are not, it is useful to discover the fact.

Modeling communication skills. The person taking the role of the convener should be especially conscious of using effective communication skills. We have found the most important skills to be: paraphrasing, impression checking, describing behaviors, describing own feelings, and taking surveys.

(1) Paraphrasing. This is a skill for checking with another team member to be sure you understand his or her statements as they were intended.

It is a skill used for reducing potential miscommunication. When paraphrasing, state in your own words what the other person's statement meant to you. This skill does not involve a simple repeating of the other's words. Rather it entails showing the other that you have understood his or her meaning. Examples include, "Is this . . . (statement) . . . an accurate understanding of your idea?" or "Would this be an example of your point?" (followed by a statement of a specific example). Paraphrasing is an essential skill for effective work processes in teams and should be employed often by the convener.

(2) Impression checking. When using this skill, you describe what you believe to be the other person's feelings or inner state in order to check if you are accurate. For example, "I get the impression you'd like to change the subject. Is that accurate?" Impression checking can also be targeted at identifying feeling states shared by several team members. For example, "I sense that several people would like to move on to another topic. Am I right?" The skill is similar to paraphrasing; however, in impression checking, the convener focuses on the affective aspects of a message rather than the cognitive aspects. When trying an impression check, you should be careful to be tentative in your description of the other's feeling, and stay away from evaluating it as being favorable or unfavorable on attempting to explain or interpret it.

(3) Describing behaviors. This skill entails reporting specific observable behaviors of the other or the team without evaluating or making any kind of statement concerning his or her intentions, attitudes, and personality. The object of describing behaviors objectively is to provide the other with a clear idea of the specific behavior to which you are responding. For example, "Dick and Allen have done nearly all the talking and the rest of us have said very little."

The astute convener will often use behavior descriptions together with one of the other communication skills such as impression checking or describing feelings (defined below). When used with an impression check, the behavior description tells the other which of his or her behaviors have led you to speculate that he or she may be feeling a certain way. For example, "You don't look at me when you speak to the team -- you usually look at Joe or Mike. Do you trust them more than you trust me?" When used in tandem with a description of feelings, the behavior description lets the other know the impact of his or her behavior on your experience. For example, "You look at Joe and Mike when you are addressing the team more than you look at me and I feel hurt and left out when you are doing that."

(4) Describing own feelings. Describing your own feelings entails specifically identifying your feeling by name, analogy, or figure of speech so that others understand what you are experiencing. Describing your feelings should be distinguished from expressing your feelings. Feelings get expressed in many different ways and many different feelings get expressed the same way, so that the expression of feelings tends to be ambiguous and subject to misinterpretations. Describing own feelings should also be distinguished from presenting an idea or action plan. When describing a feeling, make sure that the statement includes an emotional state that is taking place inside of you. Typically, for example, phrases that begin with "I feel that" usually involve ideas and recommendations rather than feelings. For example, "I feel that you are wrong" is not a direct feeling description. The sentence could have been: "I think that you are wrong." But, "I feel angry by what you just said!" is clearly a feeling description.

(5) Taking surveys. In taking a survey, the convener asks that members of the team respond with their thoughts and feelings on a particular

subject. The survey begins with one team member stating the question, issue, or decision. Next, someone else paraphrases it to make certain it has been understood. Then every one, in turn, states his or her position or opinion on the issue, trying to be as succinct as possible. During the survey, the team has an implicit pact that no member is allowed to remain silent. Even if a member has no opinion or nothing to say, that member must explicitly say so. Any member of the team, not just the convener, can call for a survey at any time and it automatically pre-empts the team's attention until every member has spoken.

Clarifying team goals. Another important function of the convener is to help the team to clarify its core goals. There are a variety of ways to accomplish this and the convener should have a repertoire of techniques. The convener can introduce brainstorming -- which involves throwing out ideas without attending to their reasonableness or feasibility. Another is an exercise that encourages team members to fantasize about how things might ideally be. Or contrastingly, the convener can encourage team members to use behavior description when discussing team goals. The last point is very important, especially if the team hopes to assess how well it is doing on pursuing its goals.

The language used in goal statements should finally be precise and operational. The words chosen should describe specific behaviors or carefully delimited concepts. For example, "team meetings will have a rotating convener and will include seven minutes of debriefing at the end," or "Any student leaving the 1 - 2 team will be able to count to 200, add combinations up to 25, and be able to measure in pounds, feet, and inches," etc. The more precise the words are the more likely several different people reading the goal statement will get the same understanding of it.

The convener should encourage the team to discuss goals in terms of who will be doing what and when. If one goal of a lower grade teaching team is to have students "get a good start in reading" it is important that the team's understanding of a "good start in reading" is made very clear. Does it mean that by the end of five months of school, each child will be eagerly working during the reading lesson? Does it mean that by June, each child will be able to work out the words presented in the first year reader independently? Does it mean that after six months, every child will be able to enjoy and read some book in the school library? Whatever particular team members have in mind, the goal statement must communicate that meaning as clearly as possible to all members and for example, to any parent of a first grader who asks about reading goals. The communication skills described above can facilitate the team's getting clear on goals.

Several exercises can be initiated by the convener to help the team arrive at important goal statements:

(1) Say it another way. The team sits in a circle. A topic for getting to some goal statements is decided upon, such as the team's meetings or the team's work goals, etc. Each time team members state an idea that they believe to be relevant or important to the team's goals, the discussion is momentarily stopped and the convener asks the team to find as many statements as possible which paraphrase the original idea. Members try in turn to come up with restatements until no one can find a reasonable alternative paraphrase. The convener should encourage the team to arrive at the very best goal statements for any particular topic.

(2) Brainstorming. This activity can be a useful way of generating lots of ideas for goal statements. One or more team members stand at a blackboard or newsprint pad. For a prescribed time-period, perhaps 5

minutes, team members call out ideas they have for goal statements. The statements are to be as brief as possible; no one stops to evaluate any idea; and little time is spent for clarification. Ideas are thrown out as quickly as they can be uttered and the convener tries to keep the atmosphere light and creative. After the brainstorming is over, time is taken to explore and evaluate the goal statements that have been generated. Ultimately, the team selects some of the goal statements to guide its work.

(3) Fantasizing the future. One way for the convener to lead team members toward making goal statements is to have them fantasize how they would most like things to be 5 years from now. Each team member lists on newsprint ways things might be different in the future. The lists might contain different ways of working, different tasks to be working on, different emotional climates within the team or between the team and its environment, and so forth. The newsprint lists are put upon the wall and team members read one another's lists. Some time is taken to clarify what is on the lists so that all members understand what is there. Team members again move around the room looking at the lists and putting checks by the three statements on each list which they find most important to them. A master list is then made, combining similar statements and grouping compatible ideas.

The statements on these lists should be discussed thoroughly and understood fully by the team members. During the discussion, the statements should be restated, refined, and clarified. Some of the statements will be eliminated while others may be extended or divided into several more specific goal statements. As the restatements are offered, the convener should help the team to focus on who would be doing what, and when.

Team members may find that they agree on the stated goals but do not move toward them in a concerted fashion. By observing the team members

at work, the convener can look for behavior which does or does not support the goal statements. Information about any discrepancies between stated objectives and member behaviors should be fed back to the team. After discrepancies are brought into the open, the goal statements can be modified or team members may agree to change their behaviors.

It is also the role of the convener to emphasize the importance of continual reassessment of goals. The team's goals may be adjusted as work towards them proceeds. Although some goals may prove to be unrealistic, others may not seem relevant to the current direction of the team's work. When team members take for granted that the reworking of goals is a central part of their teamwork, then they may be more capable of avoiding many of the tensions which arise when discrepancies between stated goals and their actual behavior occur.

(4) Integrating personal goals with group goals. Team members' satisfactions increase as they see their personal goals being integrated into the team's goals. The convener can facilitate integration of individual and team interests by having team members spend time thinking about what their personal goals are. An exercise that could be helpful begins with each team member writing his or her personal goals on a large sheet of newsprint. The pages of newsprint are next posted around the room and everyone reads all the pages. On the same page or an adjacent blank one, anyone writes down a team goal or team task which he or she feels could help to satisfy a listed personal goal. After the reading and writing are completed, team members again look at their own lists and the added suggestions. Finally, the team as a whole discusses what has been learned about team functioning and the goals which should be pursued jointly.

Managing conflicts on the team. Another important function of the

convener involves uncovering, pinpointing, and encouraging constructive work on conflicts. Although disagreements among team members indicate that conflict is present on the team, the conflict can be constructive when discussion and exploration of differences occur. The energy that grows out of conflict can be very helpful to the team if constructive and creative problem solving occurs as a consequence.

Conveners can play a constructive part in the face of conflict when they pinpoint the specific issues when disagreement is occurring. It is important for the convener to keep conflicts from becoming more general than they really are. Thus, two team members who disagree about how the work is to be carried out, but who at the same time hold similar goals for the team, can be urged to create constructive ways in which each can work toward the larger good while still doing some tasks differently. It is important in this instance that the particular area of conflict is acknowledged and that a small conflict is not allowed to escalate into an intense interpersonal feud. The convener should encourage open discussion to help the two team members to come to grips with a resolution.

Many conflicts, although not all by any means, arise because of poor communication. Two or more team members become embroiled in a series of misunderstandings, rumors, and misinterpretations. The convener can facilitate understanding in these instances by encouraging team members to practice the communication skills described above. Misinterpretations can be clarified, misunderstandings can be reduced, and rumor can be laid to rest by being specific about behaviors, feelings, and beliefs. The convener can take a neutral position in attempting to reduce such interpersonal ambiguities.

The convener can suggest several activities for helping the team

to deal with conflict:

(1) The worst fantasy: A major psychological obstacle to negotiating solutions to conflict is fear of what would happen if one party gives in. The worst fantasy activity is a way in which the conflicting parties can explore their own fears, while revealing to the others how threatening the situation is. Using a real conflict, the adversaries imagine what the worst happening could be if the other individual or subgroup should gain what it wanted from the conflict. For example, a third grade teacher on the primary team might fear that if the first and second grade teachers adopt the new reading procedure they have in mind that all students coming into the third grade reading groups will be incompetent readers and that she will be burdened with the heavy load of remedial reading. Or, another example could involve a head counselor in a senior high who fears that if leadership rotates among all counselors on the team that he would not be able to run the human relations groups he wants because other counselors believe that they are a waste of time.

These conflicts are not atypical in educational teams; they can be managed if the fantasies of the adversaries are shared. The convener can encourage resolution by having the two sides explore how each thinks about the very worst fantasy of the other. Would side A suffer its worst fantasy if side B got what it wanted? For example, if B gets the role of representing the team in discussions with the principal about scheduling, will A get the worst schedule arrangement plus before-school duty? Obviously once worst fears are brought out into the open, agreement can more easily be reached which will protect each party -- or if the reality of a fear is actually devastating, an open discussion can show that A should or should not back down, etc. Once conflicts are revealed, constructive steps

can begin to be worked out.

(2) Careful observations. By watching a team at work, the convener can begin to pick up clues about conflict. Does some team member continually introduce irritation to a discussion or hostility to a disagreement? Do these behaviors seem warranted? Do some team issues get discussed only superficially as if members were avoiding real difficulties? Do some members keep watching (but not talking) as if they are fearful of what might happen next? Do some members seem never to talk to one another? Do some team members' contributions constantly get ignored or plopped? Are tense feelings present while some team members are interacting.

Many clues like these can help the convener and other team members to realize that conflicts on the team are present. Once conflicts are noted, the convener should hazard an impression check to raise the conflict into the open. Then discussion occurs, the conflict-issues are sharpened, and miscommunications are settled. After real differences are agreed upon, problem solving and negotiation is encouraged. The next section deals with problem solving procedures which can facilitate a team's functioning.

Organizing problem solving. A critical set of activities for any team involves problem solving. As we view it, a problem is a discrepancy between a goal and a current state of affairs. Thus, for a pair of adversaries to engage in problem solving they must at the outset agree on some overarching goal and see their present situation as falling short of that goal. The astute convener or team member will attempt to get those in conflict to focus on their common goals and their disparate current points of view.

A useful system of problem solving constitutes three elements: the situation, target, and paths. The situation is the ways things are;

targets are team or personal goals; paths are actions to take for moving from the current situation to the team's targets. Astute conveners will keep these elements of problem solving in consideration as they attempt to help the team take on a problem-solving orientation. The targets set up the objectives toward which the team will move -- the current situation must be known -- and the paths are the mainsprings of team members' creativity and self-renewal.

The following steps are part of a problem-solving sequence that a team may want to use:

(1) Clarifying the problem. The team should avoid the pitfall of getting hung up on words during this early phase of problem solving. Some team members may prefer to speak of goals, others may like to speak of problems, while others may prefer the neutral label of issues. But the convener should remember that all goals reflect implicit problems, all problems indicate issues to be considered, and all issues take on their importance from the goals they involve.

The convener should encourage team members to describe problems concretely and specifically, mentioning actual events, places, people, and resources. The problem statements should be written where everyone can see them, on a blackboard or a sheet of newsprint or the like. And, members should be encouraged to mention as many problems as they can think of, placing by each problem statement the goal that is not being reached.

Next, all team members review what has been written and attempt to reduce the list to a fewer number of problem statements and goals. Then the reduced list is reviewed by the team another time so that all of the factors involved in any particular problem can be brought out into the open. Finally, during this first step in problem solving, the convener en-

courages the team to choose one problem and one goal to be attacked.

(2) Analyzing the problem. Once the situation and target have been clarified and team members share a working agreement about them, it is useful for team members to think of all of the forces that are keeping the team from moving toward its target (hindering forces) and all the forces that are helping the team to move toward its target (helping forces).

The team will discover that some of these forces are more important than others and that some are unchangeable. The forces that cannot be changed must be accepted as an integral part of the situation, and team members should be thinking about ways to work around them. Most time is spent during this step in problem solving in thinking of ways to reduce the strength of the hindering forces. It is important for the convener to encourage everyone to give their ideas about the hindering forces. Sometimes, the team may wish to ask an outside resource person to contribute some ideas during this step.

(3) Generating alternative paths. Now, with the primary hindering forces in mind, team members attempt to think of various paths to move from the situation to the target. One way to produce a lot of ideas fairly quickly is to have team members use the technique of brainstorming. The rule during brainstorming is to accept all ideas that are thrown out without evaluating them. Often a time limit is placed on the team. Usually, the convener asks team members also to focus on one or two hindering forces at a time and to generate paths of action to overcome these restraints. One or two team members act as recorders, and team members try to throw out many ideas quickly. The ideas are supposed to be stated briefly, without being explained. The ideas do not necessarily have to be practical nor do the contributors have to say how the ideas will be implemented. Ideally,

spontaneity and creativity become contagious and team members relay as they bounce thoughts off of one another.

(4) Criticizing the brainstormed paths. During the brainstorming team members were asked to set aside critical judgments. Now is the time to use critical judgment in attempting to come up with some feasible and reasonable action plans. Once idea generating is over the team settles down to discussing and understanding the ideas that have been presented. The convener tries to help members establish a constructive and creative approach. How might a way-out idea be carried out? What new and innovative things can we do? Once team members have discussed all of the brainstormed ideas, they can begin to evaluate and to choose those paths that they really want to pursue.

(5) Generating a plan of action. Next, team members try to bring the various paths from step 4 into a single, integrated design for action. The plan itself should be specific and concrete. The design should include who will do what and when. And is it important that all of the team members who will be expected to participate in the plan should be a part of the designing process. For example, an action plan generated by a fictitious team that is looking for new ways to evaluate student progress in social studies might be that Mr. T. and Ms. S. will talk with the district's evaluation specialist about available evaluation techniques before the end of the month and that Mr. G. will look up references to social studies evaluation in the University library during the next three weeks.

Once a design for action has been generated, the team members should spend a little time imagining how their new actions might work out. What might get in the way of implementing the design? The design is then revised according to team members' guesses about how the plan might work best. Often, the fresh point of view of an outsider can be useful to the team at this point. Time

spent by the team on this kind of projection and revision will be much less than the time demanded to launch the action, to struggle with the actual forces, and then to come back to evaluate and revise. Creative imagination and guessing used now can ward off some of the biggest weaknesses in the design.

(6) Trying out the plan. Team members are now ready to put the plan into action. As the plan takes shape in the real world, both the way the team works together and the effectiveness of the plan should be evaluated. The convener should encourage team members to look carefully at what happens and to suggest changes in the plan as needed. Evaluation by team members themselves will help them to see what is working well and what needs changing. Ultimately, evaluation by team members will encourage them to start a new problem solving cycle.

A microdesign for problem solving. After team members have experienced some problem solving of the type described above, they may be ready to short circuit some of the steps and to get to solutions more quickly. The following microdesign has four steps: (1) writing problem statements -- each statement includes a description of the situation and a target statement; (2) alternative solutions -- brainstorming action paths occurs during this step. It is important for the convener to keep the team on to the rules of brainstorming; (3) choosing the five most likely alternatives -- by voting, the team can reduce to brainstormed list to about 10. Then by discussion, the five most likely and feasible ideas are selected; and (4) making action plans -- once the five alternative solutions have been decided on, the team moves on to making action plans. The five paths are put in the order in which they will be implemented. Each path is stated specifically and concretely and linked to every other path.

Facilitating decision making. Team members should be aware of different methods for making decisions. Sometimes, for instance, decisions will best be made by individuals, especially when they have particular expertise or when the decisions involve only a few team members. But, other times, it will be important for team members to obtain a majority vote or even unanimity when all team members must be involved in implementing the decision.

The convener should help the team to be clear on the decision-making procedure it is using for each issue. It is useful to have a category system in mind about decision making so that team members will have a common vocabulary. One such system includes the following kinds of participation in decision making: (1) informed -- this is the weakest position in relation to decision-making; it requires that the team member is simply informed about the decision after it is made. (2) Consulted -- this kind of participation specifies that the team member must be consulted prior to the time of decision-making. (3) Involved -- this means that the team member participates directly in the decision-making process. Usually a vote of some majority is required during such a process. (4) Veto -- here the team member can call off a decision that has been made. This gives the person with veto power considerable influence in relation to the entire decision-making process. And finally, (5) authority -- here the team member has the legitimate right to make the decision on his or her own without consulting or participating with others. It represents the highest amount of power in decision-making.

The convener should encourage team members to reach clarity in how they will handle their decision-making. One procedure for doing this is to use a matrix in which issues for decision-making are listed down the left hand side vertically and the positions or roles on the team are listed across

the top horizontally. The cells of the matrix are filled out with the five types of influence listed above. For an example of this procedure, see the chapter on decision making in the Handbook of Organization Development in Schools (see annotated reference in Chapter 6).

Perhaps the most important set of activities for team members to get into relation to decision making is what we refer to as consensus decision-making. By consensus decision-making we refer to a discussion process not to unanimity or complete agreement of every member. During a consensus discussion, members are obliged to paraphrase what the key points of disagreement in the team are. Then, members are encouraged to find creative compromises. The convener takes care to point out what the minority position is and to paraphrase it. The team strives to find a solution that encompasses the major points of the minority position. After thorough discussion, those members who still cannot completely agree with the majority position are asked if they can live with the decision for a prescribed period of time. It is important at this point for the convener to initiate a team survey. In the survey, every member is obliged to report publicly what he or she thinks or feels about the issue. Finally, a pact is made on the team to carry out the decision for a prescribed period of time.

Procedures for Effective Team Meetings

Meetings are important for the effective functioning of any educational team; they serve as the communication center of the team. Team members have the opportunity to share information in face-to-face, two way dialogue. Thus, team members get the benefit of receiving direct feedback about the messages they are sending and receiving and thereby get some assurance that they have been understood.

Meetings of the team also provide a forum for collaborative decision making and consensus discussions. With all the team members present all the available information can be heard, all of the sides of an issue can be presented and a collective, clearly understood decision can be reached. At subsequent team meetings, the implementation of decisions and plans for action can be monitored. Meetings, thus, assure a sense of continuity to team planning and activities. Perhaps, most significantly, meetings can be commitment-generating experiences among team members for the implementation of team decisions and the realization of team goals. Meetings can also provide a forum for conflict raising and problem solving and can be used to draw out and coordinate the variety of opinions and resources in the team.

The three most important aspects of effective team meetings are: (1) setting up the agenda, (2) encouraging participation, and (3) guiding the debriefing.

Setting up the agenda. Prior to the meeting the convener should initiate a process for setting up the agenda. Most team meetings involve discussion of several items or topics that differ in four important ways and the convener should have these in mind when helping the team to generate the agenda. The four important aspects of the agenda are: (1) the importance or urgency of the items, (2) the extent to which the items pertain to some team members and not to others, (3) the amount of time needed to discuss the item, and (4) the type of action required from team members concerning the items. For example some items may require merely an exchange of information, while others may require consensus decision-making or considerable joint planning.

The convener can facilitate an effective team meeting by taking these four dimensions into consideration while setting up the agenda. The

following steps make use of these four dimensions and allow all team members to participate in building the agenda.

(1) Posting the agenda. The convener has an agenda posted in a central location so that team members can write down items of importance to them prior to the meeting. The convener brings this agenda to the meeting.

(2) Starting the meeting. At the start of the meeting, the convener asks each team member to think of any items that may be of importance for group discussion. These items are added to the agenda. Next, the convener makes sure that all members understand each item. Then the items are placed into clusters -- if they can be grouped together -- so that several items can be discussed under the same agenda item.

(3) Ordering the agenda. The convener selects an order for the items which is based on the importance and urgency of the items. The convener asks team members which items seem most important to them. Items that only are relevant to two or three team members are left for the last part of the meeting in case some team members are required to leave the meeting early.

(4) Proceeding through the agenda. The convener calls upon each team member who suggested the item to take the lead during that part of the meeting. The convener watches the time to assure that the team stays on schedule.

The written agenda that was posted prior to the meeting can be prepared using the following format:

<u>Item</u>	<u>Person Presenting</u>	<u>Type of Item</u>	<u>Time Required</u>
Using parents as teaching aides	Dave	Decision-Making	15 minutes
Lunch schedule modifications	Sally	Information	2 minutes
New workbooks	Sara	Information	3 minutes
Mini-course problems	Bob	Problem-Solving	20 minutes
Parents/teachers party	Sally	Information	2 minutes

This agenda is brought to the meeting by the convener and the steps described above are followed.

Encouraging participation. During the meeting, the convener acts as the discussion leader. The main tasks of the convener are to facilitate participation in the discussion and to monitor the flow of the meeting. The convener should certainly not dominate the meeting, yet, at times, he or she must be forceful and definite. The convener is concerned with the team's accomplishing tasks and is also concerned with how the members work together to accomplish the tasks. It is the convener's main job to steer the meeting away from task issues and on to interpersonal or social-emotional issues when he or she believes that the latter processes are interfering with the former ones.

The convener is concerned that all team members participate in the discussion and the decision making. The convener paraphrases and summarizes to ensure clarity and asks for surveys to be taken to facilitate open participation and consensus decision making. Although the convener has a great deal of potential influence on the course the meeting takes, he or she must be open

to opinions and views which are different. The convener strives to keep in touch with the emotional tone of the team, tries to clarify when he or she suspects that there is some confusion, checks for satisfaction of members with their participation, and watches to make sure that the meeting is progressing according to schedule.

On many educational teams, the department head, the principal, or the head teacher naturally perform some of the convening functions. We believe, however, that a convener should be appointed from the membership to perform discussion-leader functions. Our experience has shown that an effective way of sharing discussion-leader responsibilities among the team members is to rotate the role of convener among them.

Before the meeting begins, the member who is appointed convener reviews the agenda, carries the posted agenda to the meeting room, and appoints another team member to take minutes. The convener calls the meeting to order, leads the team to establish priorities in the agenda, keeps the team on tasks, monitors its time agreements for each item, and remains attuned to feelings of confusion, attempting to clarify matters by paraphrasing and summarizing. At the end of each item, the convener checks to be sure that everyone who wanted to contribute to the discussion had a chance to do so and makes sure that someone on the team summarizes to make sure the secretary has prepared accurate minutes. On a planned basis, the convener conducts a "process debriefing" (described below), checks with the secretary to see that he or she is clear about the minutes, and transfer left-over agenda to the agenda sheets for the next meeting.

A primary key to effective meetings is the ease with which the team members freely contribute to the problem solving and decision making. Free and forthright participation requires a climate of trust and openness on the

team, in which all team members can feel that their opinions and perceptions are worthwhile and valued by the other team members. There are several procedures that can be useful for encouraging participation. Along with the communication skills described previously the following activities can be tried to encourage wide participation on the team.

(1) The chance to listen. This procedure ensures that communication will be understood. During critical periods of the meeting or at times when there seems to be some misunderstanding, the members of the team are asked to paraphrase the person who just finished speaking before they are allowed to state their own view. Moreover, before any decision is reached, several team members should paraphrase the proposal that the group is deciding upon.

(2) Time tokens. This procedure can be used to even out team participation in instances where some team members dominate while most others barely contribute at all. The same number of tokens are distributed to each team member. Each token is redeemable for a specific amount of discussion time, say, 30 seconds. Every time team members participate in the discussion, they use up some of their tokens. When members run out of tokens, they can say nothing unless other team members are willing to give them some of their tokens. This allows the team to decide to give an exceptional contributor a greater share of the "air time."

(3) Buzz groups. This procedure allows smaller groups of team members to discuss an issue. The meeting is interrupted briefly, and members form either triads or quadrads and exchange views. This is particularly useful if some team members hold a minority view that they are hesitant to bring out in the larger group, or in the presence of the team leader or principal. At the end of the discussion, reporters from each small group are asked to summarize the views that were expressed in their group.

Guiding the debriefing. The convener should be watching what is happening both with regard to work and to the social emotional processes during meetings. It is important for the convener to take "process checks" whenever they seem appropriate, especially regarding satisfaction of group members with their participation and the decision-making that is being done. During either the middle part of the meeting or the last 10 minutes of the meeting (or both) the team should discuss answers to the following sorts of questions: Did we accomplish our goals for the meeting? Did we use our resources and individual strengths effectively? Or, did we avoid pitfalls such as wasting time?, etc. While the team is trying to answer such questions we describe the discussions as a "debriefing."

The convener will find it useful to have some group-process concepts in mind to guide debriefings. An important aspect of team process is the flow with which the functions and roles that we described before as work and social-emotional all fit together as the team progresses during its meeting. The total team process consists of a gestalt that encompasses both work and social emotional functions and in some way allows for and copes with individual differences of the team members. In this sense, the team's process consists of a balance among all these functions varying with the needs of team at any given time and the demands imposed by the external and internal pressures on the team. There are several questions that can be helpful for the convener to keep in mind in relation to these team processes and debriefing.

- (1) What is the pace of the team? Are we slowing down or moving ahead? Do we feel satisfied with the ground we are covering?

- (2) Are we expressing our dissatisfactions directly?
Do team members have uncomfortable feelings about the way we are doing things? Are they being expressed?
- (3) What does our participation look like? Who is participating and who is not participating? Where do the team members who are participating least, stand on the issues? Are we hearing everyone's views?
- (4) Are we helping each other (clarifying, supporting, giving information, paraphrasing, summarizing, encouraging, etc.) or are we arguing each other down? Are we listening to each other?
- (5) Are we engaging in any self-oriented behaviors like plopping, sandbagging, working hidden agendas, etc.?

In addition to key concepts for debriefing, the convener should also have a repertoire of questionnaire items that can be employed to facilitate debriefing. The following kinds of questionnaires can be useful:

(1) The Short Survey. The following few items can be used for launching debriefing discussions:

Others pay attention to what I have to say	_____ / _____ / _____ / _____ / _____ /	Others tend to ignore what I say
Team members are at odds with one another	_____ / _____ / _____ / _____ / _____ /	Team members are working together quite well
I have participated often	_____ / _____ / _____ / _____ / _____ /	I have participated very little

Members are encouraged to give behavior descriptions and their own feelings in relation to each of these items.

(2) Group Climate. The following questions adapted from Bradford, Stock, and Horevitz (1961) can be used for reporting team members reactions to meetings. Each team member is asked to complete the scales and a general picture can be calculated for the team as a whole.

What was the general atmosphere in the group? Check a place on each scale.

Formal	:	:	:	:	:	Informal
Competitive	:	:	:	:	:	Cooperative
Hostile	:	:	:	:	:	Supportive
Controlled	:	:	:	:	:	Permissive
Warm	:	:	:	:	:	Cold

What was the quality of the work accomplished? Check a place on each scale.

Quality of Production:	High	:	:	:	:	:	:	Low
Satisfaction of Group Members:	High	:	:	:	:	:	:	Low
Goals of Group:	Clear	:	:	:	:	:	:	Vague
Coordination of Group's Efforts:	Clearly Organized	:	:	:	:	:	:	Vaguely or poorly organized
Methods, Procedural Rules:	Flexible	:	:	:	:	:	:	Inflexible

(3) A Check on Participation. The following scales are helpful in generating information about the frequency and quality of participation in the meeting:

(A) How did you feel about your participation during this meeting? (Check a place)

Very Satisfied	Quite Satisfied	Some What Satisfied	Some What Dissatisfied	Quite Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
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(B) Check a place on each scale that shows how you think others participated.

All people talked	: : : : : :	Only a few talked
All members involved	: : : : : :	Members apathetic

(C) Check the place on each scale that shows how you think participation was received by the group.

Other mem- bers really considered my input	: : : : : :	Other mem- bers ignored my input
The team really considered other mem- bers' input	: : : : : :	The team ignored other members' input

(4) Rewards and costs. The following two scales are useful for getting some quick feedback about the overall value and impact of a particular meeting.

(A) HOW VALUABLE FOR YOU WAS THIS SESSION? Was it worth the time and effort? Did you receive new information, new understandings, new insights, or new questions that you consider important, valuable, helpful? (Circle one number on this scale below.)

9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

Extremely Valuable	Very Valuable		Moderately Valuable		Mildly Valuable		Almost Complet Waste of Time		

(B) AT THE PRESENT TIME HOW STRONG ARE YOUR NEGATIVE FEELINGS, RESERVATIONS, OR MISGIVINGS ABOUT OTHER MEMBERS OF THE GROUP AS A RESULT OF THIS MEETING?

In answering this question, please ignore your answer to the first question. Both ratings could be high, both could be low, or one could be high and the other low. The first question refers to the value from the session; the second asks about the costs. (Circle one number on the scale below.)

9	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-	7	-	-	-	-	6	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	0
Extremely Strong					Very Strong					Strong					Moderate					Mild					No Negative Feelings																				

(5) Post-meeting reaction sheet. This sheet was adopted from Roselie Howard, an organizational development consultant with Smith, Murray, and Howard, Inc.

Please mark an X before each item in the box that best shows your reaction to this meeting.

AGREEMENT		DISAGREEMENT		
<u>Strong</u> YES	<u>Mild</u> yes	<u>Mild</u> no	<u>Strong</u> NO	
()	()	()	()	A. The results of this meeting were worth the time.
()	()	()	()	B. I was given adequate opportunity to state my beliefs about subjects discussed by the group.
()	()	()	()	C. Our meeting was efficient.

AGREEMENT		DISSAGREEMENT	
<u>Strong</u> YES	<u>Mild</u> yes	<u>Mild</u> no	<u>Strong</u> NO

- | | | | | |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|---|
| () | () | () | () | D. I am satisfied with the attention and consideration that others gave to my ideas and opinions. |
| () | () | () | () | E. We wasted too much time in this meeting. |
| () | () | () | () | F. The group effectively used my knowledge of the subjects discussed. |
| () | () | () | () | G. The most important topics were never discussed. |
| () | () | () | () | H. I had adequate opportunity to influence our conclusions and decisions. |

Periodic major debriefings. For an educational team to remain strong and viable, it should retreat periodically from the daily work to look at how well it is doing. These major debriefings can be times at which data collected on forms such as those presented above can be fed back and discussed. Team members can use these periodic opportunities to renew trust and openness, to socialize informally with one another, and to reestablish the social-emotional commitments that team members hold for one

another. Such sessions may also be appropriate occasions for bringing in outside consultants to facilitate team-building efforts.

Annotated Bibliography

(Chapter 5)

Johnson, D.W. and F.P. Johnson, Joining Together: Group Theory and Group Skills. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1975.

This book presents in depth theory and technology for group leadership. It also contains sections on decision making, group goals, communication, conflict, cohesion, norms, power, problem solving, and team building.

Jung, C., R. Howard, R. Emory, and R. Pino. Interpersonal Communications: Leader's Manual and Participant Materials (two volumes), Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1971.

This is a comprehensive package designed to train groups of educators in communication, interpersonal and group process skills. The package consists of a step-by-step program which includes the use of films.

Pfeiffer, J.W. and J.E. Jones. A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training. Iowa City: University Associates Press, 1969-74, four volumes.

A collection of exercises, procedures, etc., for use in various phases of work with groups and for various purposes. Most describe goals (possible purposes for use), group size, time required, materials needed, physical setting, process, and variations. An occasional series.

Schmuck, R.A. Developing Collaborative Decision Making: The Importance of Trusting, Strong, and Skillful Leaders. Educational Technology,

1972, 12(10), 43-47.

Administrators at the top of a school district's hierarchy often are considered to be the primary wielders of power, with teachers and students possessing decreasing amounts of power to determine what takes place in their schools. But many districts exist for which this picture is oversimplified. In particular, there are some districts in which much of the power thought to be traditionally held by the central office administrators is shared with principals, teachers, and students. Although teamwork does not develop easily, school district groups, building faculties, and classroom groups can be trained to make collaborative decisions efficiently, without the necessity for external pressure or surveillance.

Schmuck, R.A. and J.E. Nelson. The principal as convener of organizational change. Research Reports in Educational Administration, Vol. 2, No. 2, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Colorado, Boulder, 1970. Excerpted in Samuel Christie and others. The Problem Solving School: Guidelines for Collaborative and Systematic Problem Solving: Development Team Handbook. Dayton, Ohio: IDEA, 1972, pp. 7-9. ERIC order number ED 060 521.

The authors propose that a principal, instead of making all decisions himself, should convene faculty, staff, and student groups to help bring conflict into the open and to work on organizational problems systematically. This "team leader" role assumes that team members are intelligent, competent, and want to perform well; and that an open organizational climate with high trust and esprit facilitates group problem solving procedures.

Schmuck, R.A. and P.J. Runkel. Improving staff meetings. A cassette tape, order number A-200, issued by the University Council for Educational Administration, available from UCEA, Attn: B. Finkelman, 29 West Woodruff, Columbus, Ohio, 43210, 1972.

A few basic ideas for the principal or other school leader on conducting meetings.

Chapter 6

Using Outside Consultants for Team Building

While the team members themselves can use many productive methods to achieve team effectiveness, there are occasions when inviting outside consultants to participate in team meetings can be useful, even necessary, for team building. For example, we already have pointed to the importance of debriefing for team effectiveness. But debriefing for only a few minutes at team meetings is not enough to assure continual team effectiveness. Periodic major debriefing sessions -- in the form of a one-, two-, or three-day retreat in a setting away from the work-a-day environment -- should also occur. The value of these more substantial sessions can be greatly increased with the aid of an outside consultant, if the appropriate consultant is chosen and used in a way that is congruent with the needs of the team.

There are several different types of team-building experiences and some may be appropriate for a particular educational team while others may not. In this chapter, we discuss the sorts of issues team members should consider when calling on the services of an outside consultant.

Why Call Upon Outside Consultants?

Outside consultants can bring several benefits to the educational team. First and foremost, they bring with them a fresh view of things. Unlike team members, they are not part of the formal structure of the team and their vision of the way things could be are not limited in ways that

team members' views get to be after working together over a period of time. They have the advantage of being objective since they have little, if any, investment in the outcome of decisions that affect team members. Furthermore, using outside consultants can free the convener and other team members from the responsibility of leading the discussion, allowing them to concentrate attention more fully on the team-building experience. Finally, astute outsiders can bring with them a wealth of expertise, knowledge and experience about team processes, interpersonal communications, and in particular, methods of problem solving and decision making. They can act as teachers, educating team members in more effective group procedures.

There are a variety of reasons for an educational team to call upon the services of an outside consultant. The most straight forward need for an outside consultant arises from the desire of team members to improve their skills in a particular area of team functioning. Team members may desire, for example, to improve their skills of communicating, goal setting, problem solving, decision making, convening, or debriefing. In such cases, the team may engage outside consultants to provide training in these areas. We refer to this type of team building as "training," and will describe it in more detail when we discuss the various types of consultative designs below.

Besides coordinating the training of a team in basic skills, outside consultants can be periodically called in for a team "tune-up." As with automobiles, these periodic retreats serve a preventive function by providing an opportunity for review and self-renewal among team members. At these retreats, the consultants can use many methods to help team members focus on their group processes, identify "problem" areas, and introduce strategies for solving them. This type of team-building experience is

particularly important in the early stages of the life of a team, or when new members join the team. At these juncture points in team development, issues of authority, responsibility, role clarity and goal clarity tend to be salient, as are the basic issues of interpersonal communication and presence or absence of trust and openness. Educational teams typically find it useful to schedule team-building retreats at the start of the school year, allowing for team reintegration, planning, the incorporation of individual members' goals into team goals, and the renewal and renegotiation of commitments and group agreements.

In addition to the periodic team "tune-up," there are various conditions that may develop within the team that call for the help of an outsider. One of these is the existence of prolonged interpersonal conflict as, for example, when there are overt clashes in which team members act angrily and hostilely with one another, or in the splitting of the team into factions or cliques that function at odds with one another. Conflict may also be present when team members frequently act and feel attacked or defensive with one another. Sometimes conflict on educational teams results in the psychological withdrawal of one or more team members or results in some team members refusing to work together or talk with one another. A team-building retreat is certainly appropriate when team members are frequently expressing negative feelings about one another privately, and in subgroups.

Breakdowns in team cohesiveness also indicate the need for a team-building retreat. One indicator of a lack of cohesiveness is team members feeling isolated from the rest of the team. Another is when several team members are leaving or attempting to leave the team. The existence of heterogeneous cultural backgrounds among team members may contribute to

a breakdown in team cohesiveness, as can the demands of a task which requires some members to work separately for long periods of time. Excessive lateness or absence can also be a signal of weakened team cohesiveness.

A lessening of team productivity is, of course, another indicator that a team-building retreat is warranted. The inability of the team to reach decisions on important issues is one important indicator of low productivity. Another is the failure of team members to implement decisions once they are made. The general sense among the members that very little seems to get accomplished when the team meets or a feeling among team members that they are being overwhelmed by one crises after another are other signals that a team-building retreat is overdue.

Team roles, particularly leadership roles, can be an area that warrants the attention of an outside consultant. Difficulties with roles are shown when members feel unclear about their own or other's roles. Sometimes, while roles may be clear enough, some team members may be unsatisfied with them and may want to negotiate new roles in the team. At times, team members' roles can be designed in ways that interfere with the work of other team members. This is often experienced as "people getting in one another's way." Leadership poses more specialized role problems, because the convener's behaviors tend to be more important to most team members than any other single member's behavior. There may be problems if the convener's style clashes with the expectations of the team's membership. It is not uncommon for team members to feel a lack of sufficient feedback from the team leader, or, perhaps, that the leader does not represent them well when performing his or her "linking" role. Taking on team leadership by a new individual may create some difficulty for the team and the new leader as well.

team members may tend to create artificial subgroups and may tend to strengthen feelings of isolation among some members. In addition, it sometimes is beneficial to include people other than the team members during at least part of the retreat, especially if they are highly interdependent with the team, or if they are likely to be strongly affected by actions decided upon during the retreat. As such, it may be useful at times to include the principal or other administrators or specialized resource teachers and student personnel such as counselors and school psychologists who are not directly part of the team.

Another important issue that arises at this time is the selection of appropriate and competent consultants. This is an important consideration because there are a plethora of individuals nowadays calling themselves organizational or group consultants whose competence may be questionable. Thus, it is difficult to ensure the quality of a particular consultant's competence. If ever the phrase "let the buyer beware" were appropriate, it is certainly true in this instance. The safest approach is to engage consultants, known to some team members as effective. If this is not possible, and the team is considering engaging consultants about whom they have no information, do not hesitate to request references of persons with whom the consultants have worked, and to follow-up with an inquiry about the consultant's effectiveness.

Aspects of consultative designs.

While several different types of basic consultative designs are available to educational teams, there are certain features that are common to all team-building efforts. Typically, the team-building consultation begins with a diagnostic period, during which the consultants gather information about the team, enabling them to put together an appropriate design

These examples describe some of the conditions that tend to warrant the attention of outside consultation at a team-building retreat. By no means do they constitute an exhaustive list. They do, however, represent some very important types of "pain" experienced by educational teams that have motivated them to seek outside help.

Initiating the team-building retreat.

The suggestion to initiate a team-building retreat may come from the team's convener or any other team member who perceives the need. At times the suggestion may come from an outside source such as the school's principal, a central-office district administrator or a member of the school board. In any case, the suggestion should be brought before the team for discussion prior to any action taken by individual members to initiate the retreat. The most successful team building retreats are those which enjoy the support and enthusiasm of all the members of the team.

A discussion about a possible team-building retreat should include sharing perceptions among team members about the need for a team-building experience, and what each of the members hopes to gain from a retreat. It may be helpful as well if team members share some of their concerns, reservations, and anxieties about a team-building retreat and are clear about what they do not want to happen there. Such a discussion should help team members to articulate mutually agreed upon goals for a retreat, goals with which all are relatively comfortable.

One issue that tends to arise during the early stages of deciding on a team-building retreat is who should be included. In our experience, the most successful retreats are those which include the entire educational team, including the secretarial and support staff. Excluding any of the

for a retreat or for working with the team in its actual work setting. It is important to bear in mind that during this diagnostic period team members also have the opportunity to find out about the consultants. We highly recommend that team members use the diagnostic period to exercise critical judgment in deciding whether a particular consultant or team of consultants are appropriate for the team's needs.

The initial stages of diagnosis usually begin with a meeting involving the team members and the outside consultant. At this meeting the team members have the opportunity to share their opinions and perceptions about the need for a team-building retreat, as well as their hopes and expectations for the eventual outcomes of the consultant's efforts. Team members question the consultants about their philosophy and methods. This initial meeting should result in an oral contract between the team and the consultants about the goals and procedures of the entire team-building design and an agreement to allow the consultant to engage in further diagnosis.

There are several methods that the consultant might employ in diagnosing the team's group processes. A costly, but thorough method is that of interviewing each of the team members individually. Sometimes, a sufficient diagnosis might be obtained by interviewing several key members, or by interviewing team members together in a group. A less costly method for gathering specific information is the use of questionnaires or instruments similar to those presented on meeting effectiveness in Chapter 6. A number of such instruments are presented in Diagnosing Professional Climates in Schools by Fox et al. (see annotated reference at end of this chapter). There are also less formal methods of diagnosis that may be used by the consultants. These include asking team members to draw or construct abstract

representations of team functioning or even physical sociograms of the team structure using the team members themselves.

Following the diagnostic phase, the consultants will use the information they gathered to design a team-building retreat. The retreat itself will most likely be directed toward improving the work and social-emotional processes discussed in Chapter 3. As such the team-building activities may focus on such work issues as team goals, members' roles and responsibilities, methods for problem solving and decision making, and some of the techniques being used to run team meetings. On the social-emotional side, the focus of a retreat could be on resolving interpersonal conflicts, increasing the amounts of trust and openness on the team, or on building an increased sense of team purpose and cohesiveness. While most team-building retreats will include aspects of both work and social-emotional processes, they will also tend to emphasize one over the other. Team members should take an active role in determining where they want that emphasis to be.

While team-building retreats tend to differ with respect to type and focus, they all eventually lead to some realistic problem solving on the part of team members. Here the consultants help team members to identify specific high priority problems, generate solutions in the form of plans for action, make decisions on a particular course of action, implement those decisions, and establish a process whereby the team can monitor its progress toward its goals. Typically, much of this problem solving is carried out after the retreat in the context of the work-a-day world of the team.

Types of team-building designs.

We have found it useful in our consultation with educational teams to conceptualize four different types of team-building designs; (1) training, (2) process observation and feedback, (3) data feedback, and (4)

confrontation. While most team building retreats tend to combine various aspects of each of these four types, any particular retreat will generally emphasize one or another of them, as each tends to respond to somewhat different team circumstances.

Training. Effective team functioning is based on a variety of interpersonal skills that are facilitative of the team's work and social-emotional processes. Such skills include the team's ability to communicate clearly, to observe the group processes, to conduct effective meetings, to engage in collaborative problem solving and decision making, to establish and clarify goals, and to manage team conflict. Training experiences can be designed to teach these skills to the team as a whole and help team members apply them in their work. They are generally characterized by four basic elements: education, skill learning, exercises, and procedures.

Education refers to the presentation of conceptual materials to team members to improve their ability to understand how groups and organizations function. The consultant will help team members develop a conceptual map of healthy and effective team functioning and will provide the conceptual tools to enable team members to take a critical look at their own team. Depending upon the team's circumstances, such conceptual material might include relevant theories of interpersonal relations, concepts from theories of group and intergroup relations, models of leadership and collaborative decision making, or theories of conflict.

Skills are those behaviors which can improve the competency and effectiveness of the team as it works together. Generally, these skills include anything from speaking clearly to setting priorities systematically. The kinds of skills typically included in training designs are communication

skills, i.e., paraphrasing, describing behavior, impression checking, and describing one's own feeling, skills for conducting meetings, and skills for collecting data about the team. These skills are put to work in reciprocal relations between persons; individuals do not make use of these skills in isolation. Each skill is actually one person's part of a reciprocal role-relation. Paraphrasing for example, can only be done in conversation with at least one other person and is not a complete act until the other has verified the accuracy of the paraphrase. The skill of a team, consequently, is often suprisingly independent of the skill of the individuals composing it. For this reason, training in group skills is designed as training for the team as a whole.

Exercises are structured game-like activities designed for the practice of skills, and to increase the awareness of interpersonal and group processes. Typically, exercises are simulated situations and problems which are designed to bring out processes going on within the team. Each exercise is designed to focus on a particular dimension of team life. As such, there are exercises which simulate communication patterns, decision making, problem solving, and so on.

Each exercise is designed to produce a specifiable learning experience. The learning that occurs through exercises is based on the conception that an awareness of interpersonal and group processes, and the subsequent integration of relevant skills is best facilitated through a combination of experiential and cognitive learning. The exercises allow team members to try out and experience new ways of doing things in a relatively anxiety-free context, unrelated to the content of the day-to-day work of the team. In one exercise, for example, team members are given the opportunity to observe their decision-making processes without much investment in the

content of the decision.

Ultimately, however, the primary aim of the exercises is the transfer of the learning to the real, day-to-day work of the team. To accomplish this, team members must apply what they have observed and discovered in the exercise to their work-a-day functioning. Debriefing the exercise helps the team make this transfer. Following the exercise, time is set aside for team members to examine the consequences of their behavior and to discuss the effects and advantages of one behavior as opposed to another. During such a debriefing, team members consider how their behaviors were similar or dissimilar to their typical team behavior and by asking how they would apply what they have learned to their actual back home work as a team. Group processes for which simulated exercises have been developed include decision making, interpersonal trust, giving and receiving feedback, problem solving, conflict resolution, collaboration versus competition, confrontation, and influence. These are described in detail in the Handbook of Organization Development in Schools (annotated at the end of this chapter).

A procedure is an interpersonal form for communication and work in a team without any particular content in itself. Procedures often overlap with skills and many of the skills mentioned above can be designated as a procedure. One example of a procedure is voting, another example is a systematic sequence for solving problems. Procedures are introduced with the purpose of moving the team along toward its goal. Being content free, they adapt to the content of the team's task and do not intrude upon the team's normal work. There are procedures for clarifying communication, giving and receiving feedback, decision making, problem solving, conflict management, role clarification, and other areas of team interaction. The problem-solving sequence described in Chapter 5 is an example of a team pro-

cedure.

Training experiences are particularly appropriate for teams whose members wish to upgrade their skill for working together. Often they are used to upgrade specific team skills prior to the introduction of other types of team building designs. We have found the other types of team building to be most effective when a certain level of skill already exists in the team. They can be useful too for newly formed teams in providing a model for highly effective functioning right from the start.

Process observation and feedback. In process observation and feedback, the consultant focuses on the specific ways in which team members work with one another on their actual tasks. At a team-building retreat, the team is invited to work on one of its real problems and to act just as they would back home. The consultant may also sit in on a team meeting, and in some cases, will offer individual consultation of a single team member. The latter is most often done with the team leader.

As the consultants observe the team at work, they are particularly concerned with how the team is functioning on their work and social-emotional processes. Specifically, they are concerned with communication patterns, group norms, formal and informal roles, leadership styles, decision-making and problem-solving procedures, and how the team handles conflict. They may simply just observe these processes or collect more formalized data on them as team members interact. In any case, as the consultants observe this behavior, they are concerned with the question, "How is this behavior related to the team's effectiveness and to the satisfactions of team members?" Later, the consultants offer feedback about what they have observed.

Often process observation and feedback is used when team members are experiencing a particular problem. For example, in a management team,

the members may find that "decisions get made but never seem to get implemented." The consultants observing a discussion leading up to decision making, may note that only the superintendent and two or three assistants actually took part in the discussion, while others remained silent. The consultants may begin to speculate that the conditions of low participation in predecision-making discussions may be related to the lack of implementation. Perhaps, this low participation reflects a lack of commitment or feelings of apathy with regard to the decision. This last speculation, of course, is an impression about the attitudes and feelings of the silent team members. The consultants will check out these kinds of impressions. In doing such checking, the consultants might describe the behaviors that they are observing, and present some data about their observations to the team, e.g., they may report the number of times that each member spoke throughout the discussion. Sometimes, the mere description of the team's behavior will suffice to open discussion of the topic and get to the root of the matter. At other times, the consultants may state the impressions that they are formulating about the team. They may wonder if the low participation reflects a low sense of commitment to the decision and check this out with the team members. The consultants may also more actively intervene in ways designed to increase the participation of silent members, e.g., introducing a survey in which all members are asked for their views on the decision.

Our example of the management team that lacks follow through on decisions illustrates a key feature of process observation and feedback. Specifically, it is moving the team's attention away from the convening problem and focusing in on emerging problems. In our example, the convening problem was "a lack of implementation of the team's decisions." With the consultants'

help, a new problem such as low participation among team members and lack of commitment to the decision, emerges as a focus for the team's attention. By presenting observations and impressions to the team the consultants transform emerging problems into convening ones and, thus, facilitate relevant problem solving for the team.

Data feedback. In data feedback, the consultants make direct use of the information they obtained during their diagnosis. Generally, after collecting diagnostic data, the consultants put it together in a way that reveals areas of concern and the perceptions and feelings of the majority of team members. At the retreat this information is presented to the team and the various topics are opened for clarification and problem solving. The consultants will generally convene this discussion, encouraging frank, open responses among team members. The consultants will also help clarify communication and summarize the major issue and views.

The goal of the data feedback discussion is the identification of high priority problems. The consultants orient the team members towards clarifying the problem areas that emerge from the discussion, while helping them to frame the problems in ways that will facilitate problem solving. Finally, the consultants guide the team members through a problem solving process with regard to those problems that team members have identified.

Confrontation. A confrontation design is most appropriate with teams experiencing conflict between some of the members or when one team is experiencing conflict with another team. Consultants help the conflicting parties to engage one another directly and to focus on the conflict in a problem solving manner. The goals of the confrontation are to clarify the parameters of the conflict, clarify its source, and begin planning for ways to manage or resolve the differences.

Confrontation strategies can be applied to individuals in conflict and to groups in conflict. In either case, the consultants encourage both parties to share their perceptions, impressions, fears, opinions, and concerns about each other and thereby attempt to help clarify the behavioral, and situational bases for the conflict. Some hoped for outcomes of this kind of consultation are that discrepancies between team members' intentions and behavior will be clarified, that any miscommunication will be brought out into the open and clarified, that conflicts arising from situations which are no longer in existence will be settled, that conflict arising from conflictual role definitions may lead to role change, that agreements may be reached on how to conduct the conflict in less destructive ways, and that interpersonal trust will begin to develop.

A Case Study in Consultation for Team Building

The case study presented here reflects a synthesis of the four team building designs just discussed.

The educational team consisted of the staff of a small school which functioned as a treatment center for emotionally disturbed children. The staff consisted of a director, a counselor, a psychologist, a secretary, a coordinator, four teachers, and two teacher aides, making 11 members in all. They constituted a closely knit group which had worked together as a staff for the previous three years. They had had no previous experience with an outside consultant at all, nor had they ever deliberately worked on team building on their own.

It was the psychologist who made the initial suggestions for a planned team-building effort. She had some knowledge and exposure to consultation for organization development and had been the only team member who pressed for a team-building retreat the previous year. Her role and orien-

tation also differed considerably from those of the other team members and she had a different and, perhaps, more "distant" perspective on some of the issues with which the teaching staff was struggling. After discussion with the staff, she was asked to make initial contact with some consultants.

At the initial meeting of the psychologist and the consultants, the psychologist described the team matters that need some attention: (1) a new role, that of "coordinator" had been created within the team because of a recent acquisition of new funds. There was a lack of clarity and some disagreement among staff members about exactly what this new role would entail. There were, also, some negative feelings about the ex-teacher who was chosen to take the role. (2) Several of the staff were both unclear about and dissatisfied with the way in which the counselor was doing his job. They thought that he was not doing his job competently and thoroughly enough. (3) There was a general "lack of communication" among the staff. Specifically, team members had feelings and opinions about one another's behavior that were not being communicated clearly and directly.

Following this initial contact, the consultants met with the director of the team. Their main objective was to ascertain the director's goals for the retreat. They asked her what it was that she hoped would be accomplished and two general areas emerged from her reply: (1) several of the staff's roles needed clarification, and (2) staff members needed to be more direct with one another.

The director seemed more certain of her first objective compared to the second one. While she stated clearly that she thought the staff needed to focus on its interpersonal communications, she seemed slightly uncomfortable with the prospect of either focusing too much on staff relationships or of creating a threatening and uncomfortable situation in the team.

The consultants thought the director had difficulty in giving them a clear idea of the degree to which she felt it was important to focus on interpersonal communication. They commented on this to the director and she replied that she was a little concerned that some staff members would not want to "go as far" as others in this area. The consultants thought that probably the best design would be to begin by focusing on the issues of role clarity and then move toward improving interpersonal communication as the need arose and after some of the work issues had been clarified. They also thought that it would be important to meet all the team members to discuss their goals for the team-building retreat. They shared these thoughts with the director and she agreed.

The consultants joined the staff a week later at a regular staff meeting. At the outset they told the team that they had interviewed the psychologist and the director and that they had been forming some initial impressions about topics that would need the team's attention during an forthcoming two-day retreat. They also had some preliminary ideas on how to go about covering these various topics. They did, however, want to meet the staff and gather more information about their observations and impressions. They asked the team members to consider what goals and expectations they would have for the retreat, and what, if any, reservations they were experiencing.

The team members' responses tended to support the data that had already been collected. All team members agreed that there was a need for some work on "staff communication." Then, the director asked if any team-members were hesitant about expressing feelings directly to one another. While most team members agreed that focusing on interpersonal relations was somewhat "scary," they felt a need to do so, and expressed a desire to move in that

direction. Most team members agreed that the newly created "coordinator" role was in need of clarification. Some lack of clarity concerning the counselor's role was also expressed. The consultants shared their ideas about beginning with role clarification and then moving toward staff communication as the need presented itself. The staff responded favorably to this design.

At the close of this session with the entire team, the consultants stated that they had a general idea of some of the areas that the team considered important. They now needed to have more specific information about these areas in order to prepare a detailed design and agenda for the retreat. They asked the team members to complete and return the following questionnaire, explaining that the information received would be confidential and would only be presented back to the team in the form of general anonymous feedback:

In thinking about next week's retreat, make a list of those issues that you feel need our attention. Identify areas of ambiguity, e.g., an unclarity of someone's role or organizational policy, or areas around which there is conflict (overt or covert), or topics that need to have decisions made about them. Next to each area (in the appropriate space) list those persons whom you see as most centrally involved in the issue, and any opinions or perceptions that you may have concerning the nature of the issue, e.g., its causes, how to solve it, or what the issue "really" is, etc. Please, list the issues in order of importance:

Issues

Persons Involved

Your Perceptions

The two-day team-building retreat was held a week later at a resort area about three hours away from the school. The staff had gone through a considerable amount of planning on the housekeeping details of the retreat. The director and one of the staff members had drawn up a rough schedule of the two days allowing time for both work and play. The staff left the school at 9:00 a.m. and after a pleasant ride over the mountains, arrived at their destination at 12:00 noon. After an hour of settling in and eating a light lunch, the team building retreat was launched.

Using the information collected from the above questionnaire, the consultants had identified five areas that would comprise the agenda for the two-day team building retreat. They were: (1) the coordinator's role, (2) the counselor's role, (3) staff/child relationships, (4) staff communication, and (5) other issues. Specific statements were formulated for each of these issues, and these were written on newsprint under each of the five headings.

The meeting began with the consultants briefly reviewing the agenda. After a brief discussion, the consultants suggested some priorities for how the items on the agenda would be handled. The work issues would be handled first, and "staff communication" would be dealt with once some progress had been made in the other areas. The "role of the coordinator" seemed to have highest priority and it would be dealt with first. A considerable amount of time would be set aside for "staff communication," even if it meant only briefly touching on some of the other items. The staff agreed with the consultants' suggestions.

The first item on the agenda, the "role of the coordinator," was introduced as the consultants posted the statements they had generalized from the data. They were as follows:

The Coordinator's Role

1. This role affects all of the staff members in some way.
2. There is some unclarity about exactly what the role will be.
3. There is disagreement between the director and the teaching staff about what the role should be. The director wants the role to include "supervision" of teachers. The teachers do not want it to include "supervision."
4. It is unclear what "supervision" actually means. It needs to be clarified and defined.
5. Some feel that part of the conflict over the role stems from feelings about the new coordinator's working style and the fact that she had previously been one of the teachers.
6. Some think that the director, not the new coordinator, should be responsible for "supervision."

The consultants then reviewed each of the statements, checking to see that they were clear and understood by all. Next, the consultants surveyed the team for their reaction to the data. Each team member was asked to state briefly "where they were" on each of the statements. Were they not aware of any particular point? Did they agree or disagree with the statement? Did they have any other comments to add? The director began by stating that while she had been aware that there was some ambiguity over the coordinator role, she had not been aware that the staff had such strong convictions about the "supervision" issue as the data seemed to indicate. Following her statement, the teachers, one by one, confirmed the fact that indeed such strong feelings did exist. For her part, the coordinator was aligned with the teachers on the "supervision" issue. She also expressed some feelings of stress about being "in the middle" between the teachers and the director. What emerged from this initial part of the data feedback was everyone agreeing that what was meant by "supervision" needed to be clarified.

After clarifying this point, the consultants divided the staff into three groups: (1) the teachers and the aides; (2) the director and the counselor; and (3) the new coordinator and the psychologist. The counselor and the psychologist were encouraged to help the coordinator and the director clarify and verbalize their views. The groups were instructed to form two lists based on their view of what the role of the coordinator would be like. The first was a list of specific tasks which the coordinator would do and the second was a list of tasks that she would not do. Each group was asked to rank order the items on its lists according to priority.

As the groups began there was some hesitancy and a reluctance to state clearly and behaviorally exactly what the coordinator would be doing.

The initial statements were vague and abstract, e.g., "The coordinator would be responsible for monitoring case progress." The consultants pushed the group members for specificity: "What kinds of things would she be doing if she were 'responsible for monitoring'?" "Are there things that you would expect that she would not be doing?" It seemed to the consultants as if the staff members needed "permission" to express their differing positions openly and clearly. Increasingly, the statements became more and more specific. After 45 minutes the groups were asked to rejoin in the main room and to post their lists for the others to view.

After a short break for coffee, a representative from each of the groups presented the lists to the rest of the team clarifying any area of ambiguity and confusion. The teachers' lists were presented first, followed by the director's, and finally, the coordinator's list was presented.

Some specific differences in role definition and priorities began to emerge between the groups. The teachers viewed the primary task of the coordinator as training and consultation with parents. This would relieve them of this responsibility, freeing them to focus on curriculum planning for the children. Secondly, the teachers saw the coordinator as a "resource person" from whom they could seek specific consultation when they felt they needed it. They did not want the coordinator to become involved in checking up on them to make sure they were doing their job. Finally, they wanted the coordinator to assume responsibility for the orientation and training of practicum students and volunteers; a task for which the teachers were presently responsible. In sum, the teachers viewed the new coordinator as a peer and resource person whose tasks would complement theirs and, most importantly, whose presence would alleviate certain aspects of their current work overload.

The director had much different notions about the role of the coordinator. Her highest priority was for the coordinator to "monitor the progress" of each case. This meant that it would be the coordinator's responsibility to meet with each teacher on a regular basis and to evaluate the progress of the various plans and strategies for educating each child. The coordinator was to know which children were making progress and which ones were not. In addition, it would be the coordinator's responsibility to give the teachers feedback about their teaching behavior with the children. Moreover, the coordinator would assume some, but not all, of the parent-training tasks from the teachers. Finally, if there were any additional time, the coordinator would assume some responsibility for the orientation and training of the volunteers. In other words, the director tended to view the coordinator's role as supervisory in relation to the teachers, filling some managerial functions that would allow the director to focus more completely on funding and public relations. She saw the coordinator assuming some of the teachers' tasks, but not to the same degree desired by the teachers.

The last to present her list, the coordinator's views were similar to those of the teachers. She saw parent training as her first priority. Secondly, she saw herself as a "resource" for the teachers, available upon request. She did not want to meet with teachers who did not feel like meeting with her. Lastly, she saw herself assuming the orientation of practicum students and volunteers, but she felt that the teachers should be responsible for the ongoing training of them.

Discussion of the entire team about the three lists followed.

Staff members were asked one another why they felt the way they did and presented their own rationales, in turn. The director expressed a sense of responsibility for the progress of each child. She thought that there should be one person who knew how all the children in the school were progressing. Furthermore, she thought that each teacher should share the responsibility for the children with another person, and that no one person should be solely responsible for the "success or failure" of a particular child. She thought that she was offering the teachers support and "protection," and she found it difficult to understand why they were not accepting it.

For their part, the teachers saw no need for the kind of monitoring that the director believed would be useful. They said that things were going fine now, people were doing their jobs well, and there were not any "problems" that warranted the monitoring of the coordinator. Furthermore, they felt "put down" by the director's desire to create a "supervisory" role. They saw themselves as professionals who were not being treated as such. Why had they been singled for "supervision?" Who "supervises" the psychologist, the counselor, or the director? They felt they were not being treated with the trust and integrity that they deserved. And the coordinator agreed with the teachers.

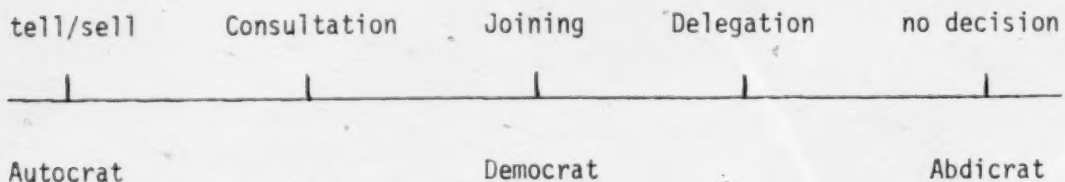
The consultants allowed the discussion to continue until the staff members started to repeat themselves. Next, the consultants asked both sides to paraphrase why the other side felt the way they did. Then, the group took a three-hour break with the expectation to begin problem solving when they returned.

The problem solving began with brainstorming. The team was asked to generate a list of "alternative" solutions which may represent either new ways of defining the role or compromises that might be acceptable to

both the teachers and the director. Team members were encouraged to "use their imagination" and not to think much about whether any particular idea would work. Several suggestions were generated, for example, setting up a system of "peer supervision," giving the teachers a day off per month for planning, and giving the coordinator responsibility for initiating contact with teachers for contracting for supervision.

After the brainstorming came the hard part. Each side was asked to study the alternatives and to present proposals for ways to resolve the conflict and reach an agreement. The proposals were supposed to represent a compromise. Each side was asked to consider what it was willing to give up. They were encouraged to "give a little to get a little."

At this point, the consultants presented a brief lecturette on the various ways groups could make decisions. The following decision-making continuum was presented:



The consultants explained that styles of group decision making range from autocratic in which the leader makes the decision and tells or "sells" it to the group, to the other extreme, abdicratic in which no decision is formally made. Informally, the abdicratic style is an implicit decision to allow everyone to do as they see fit. Moving along the continuum, from both extremes toward the center, are consultation and delegation. Consultation means that while the team leader reserves the right and responsibility for final decision, she requests information and opinions

of other team members and takes them in account. Delegation means that the leader or the entire team designate some person or persons to be responsible for the final decision.

At the middle of the continuum is the democratic mode of decision making. This means that the leader joins the team as an equal member with an equal amount of influence on the final decision. In the democratic mode the final decision can be made either by majority or consensus. The consultants stated that it was their impression that the preferred style of this particular team was the democratic, consensual model. All the team members agreed. The consultants then added that the democratic, consensual model was the most difficult to attain, that it required a collaborative effort and a willingness to compromise. If such readiness were not present on the team, the consensual model would fail. In such cases, the decision-making mode then moves toward either the autocratic pole or the abdicratic pole. The consultants told the group that if the consensual model did not work in this case, they would ask the group to make a decision to move toward either the autocratic or abdicratic style.

Following the lecturette on decision making, team members were told to generate proposals for resolution of the conflict. Initially, both sides seemed reluctant to budge from their positions. Then, they began to discuss some of the alternatives presented and to "give a little." The teachers said that a day off a month for planning would give them more time, making it less important for the coordinator to relieve them of all of their parent-training responsibilities. They were still unwilling to accept a "supervisory" role, and offered peer supervision as an alternative. The director would go along with the planning day and the notion of peer supervision, and the idea that the coordinator would assume "some" parent-training

responsibilities, but insisted that the coordinator be responsible for "supervision," as well. The staff remained at this impasse for some time and the frustration began to grow.

The consultants reminded the team that they had a choice of reading a "compromise" decision or of deciding to move toward either an autocratic or an abdicratic mode. They asked the staff members to generate some compromise solutions to the "supervision" problem. Several solutions were generated but none seemed satisfactory to both sides and the frustration continued to grow.

Finally, one solution was proposed that seemed to the consultants to have more promise than the others. Someone suggested that the coordinator should have the responsibility for initiating weekly contact with each teacher to contract for supervision on a particular issue or problem that was of concern to the teacher.

At this point, the consultants took the more active role as mediators. They presented this suggestion to the teachers and asked them either to accept it or clearly state their specific objections. When the teachers refused to accept it, the consultants asked them to state their "worst fantasy" of what would happen if the proposal were adopted. The teachers decided that the worst thing that could happen was that a teacher may not want to discuss anything with the supervisor and will be "forced" to do so. The consultants then incorporated the teachers objection into the proposal and restated it to allow teachers to contract for no supervision on a weekly basis.

The newly stated proposal was then presented for acceptance to the director. When she refused to accept it, the consultants asked her to state her "worst fantasy." She said that she was concerned about a situation in

which a particular teacher was consistently doing a bad job with a particular child and was consistently refusing to contract for supervision. Again, the consultants incorporated the director's objection into the proposal by specifying that in cases of teacher irresponsibility the coordinator has the responsibility to initiate contact with the teacher. Finally, in response to the teachers' objection, it was agreed that the final recourse for any conflict between the coordinator and the teacher would be an open meeting of the entire staff. Once all the differences were "ironed out" a final agreement was drafted as follows:

Coordinator's Role

1. Responsibility to initiate contact to contract for weekly supervision with teachers about treatment issues. Teachers are responsible for content of supervision; they have the option to contract for no supervision.
2. Responsibility to initiate feedback to any teacher who is perceived to be consistently irresponsible. Final recourse for any conflict between coordinator and teacher will be an open staff meeting.
3. Responsibility for some (to be defined) parent training.
4. Responsibility for orientation and some (to be defined) training for practicum students.
5. The teachers will formalize a process for ongoing "peer supervision" and present it to the director.
6. The children will stay home one day per month, to allow a day for teacher planning.

The staff had worked for eight hard and frustrating hours to finally reach this agreement. When it was reached, there was a new sense

of accomplishment, pride, and cohesion in the team; a "we did it!" feeling. "Well," said one team member, "it's definitely time to party," as he brought out a bottle of wine and passed around the styrofoam cups. From the consultant's points of view, team building was definitely occurring.

The next morning, the team proceeded with its agenda. It was obvious that it would be impossible to cover all of the remaining items during the second day. At the suggestion of the consultants, the team agreed to review the feedback sheets and to conduct a survey or brief discussion of each of the remaining agenda items during the first hour and a half. The rest of the day would be set aside for "staff communication."

The first item to be reviewed by the group was the counselor's role. The consultants displayed the data to the group:

The Counselor's Role

1. The role affects everyone.
2. There is some unclarity about the counselor's role. Some people do not know what he does, while others feel they do know. Some of his work may not be directly observable to others on the staff.
3. It may be helpful if the counselor were relieved of some of the clerical aspects of his work, to free him for more follow-through work and other things.

Through previous interviews with the director and the psychologist, the consultants were aware that the counselor's role had been a recurring problem for the staff. Clarification of the counselor's role had been raised before and it had never been satisfactorily carried out. After the data were presented, a survey of the team took place. Each team member stated his or her reactions and views about the information on the

counselor's role. By and large, the teachers who had little day-to-day contact with the counselor, and rarely felt the effects of his actions, agreed that the counselor's role was ambiguous and that at times it seemed as if the counselor was not doing anything crucial for the school. On the other hand, the director and the psychologist, who had considerable contact with the counselor, and who were often in touch with the effects of his actions, disagreed. To them, the counselor's role was clear and it was evident that he was doing a fine job at very important tasks. The counselor himself felt somewhat defensive, bewildered, and frustrated. He knew he worked hard, yet somehow what he was doing was not getting across to the majority of his colleagues. Over time, these feelings seemed to be eroding his sense of self-confidence and contribution to the team.

After the survey and brief discussion, one of the consultants began to comment on the situation. "You know," she began, "I've seen this kind of thing over and over again. It doesn't surprise me in the least that the counselor happens to be at the brunt of this disagreement. As a matter of fact, I'd be surprised if he weren't." Team members were silent and looked to the consultant with some surprise. She continued: "You see, it's highly probable, that the 'place' that the counselor is in this group and the feelings about his job have less to do with his competence of performance than with his particular position in the organization and the particular way in which his role is defined. You see, the counselor is on what we call the 'boundary' of the organization, facing outwards a great deal of the time. This means that most of the work that he does is directed towards persons outside of the team; coordinating with other community organizations, monitoring the selection and entry of families and children for treatment, and other tasks that do not bear specifically on the direct services that you teachers

perform. Because you teachers are so indirectly affected by the counselor's work, you are the ones who have the most difficulty being clear about what he does. On the other hand, those of you whose jobs allow them more contact with the counselor and his outside contacts seem quite satisfied with the job he is doing. It seems to me that the problem here is one of communication. It may be important for the counselor to take some time to let others know what he is doing and in this way prevent the kind of isolation that is bound to surround anybody who happens to be occupying his role in the organization."

What the consultant had done in this situation was to redefine for the team the nature of the conflict the team members were experiencing. The initial tendency of the team members, being so "close" to the situation and personally involved in it, was to see the "problem" as emanating from the individual personality of competence of the counselor. From their perspective, if a "problem" existed, it most likely existed "in" somebody. The solution that follows from this line of reasoning is to identify that individual and to change him. The consultant introduced a new perspective. Her basic assertion was that the "problem" may not exist inside a particular person but rather it emanates from things that happen between people; from the ways that their specific role and tasks are designated to fit together.

Just the introduction of this social psychological perspective had the effect of reducing some of the tension in the team. The counselor was visibly relieved for he had finally received some support for the demands of his job. The other team members began to consider the consultant's statement, agreeing that the lack of contact and communication between the counselor and themselves, could, indeed, account for the feelings they had been experiencing. Finally, the group decided that at the next staff meeting, the counselor

would take some time to let the others know what kind of things he is doing.

The next item on the agenda was "staff/child relationships." As with the other items, the consultants displayed the data they had collected.

Staff/Child Relationships

1. Involves the entire staff.
2. There is some disagreement among the staff about what kind of aversives and controls are appropriate to use with the children.
3. There is concern among the staff about sarcastic remarks about children being made by staff members in the children's presence.

A survey of the staff's reactions to the data clearly indicated that the issues presented were of utmost concern to the entire staff and they agreed to spend a major segment of the next staff meeting discussing these issues.

Finally, the data on the "other issues" portion of the agenda presented:

Other Issues

1. How do we keep the staff from getting "burnt-out?"
2. Where does our responsibility for the children and families end?
3. Are our salaries equitably distributed or should we consider new criteria?
4. We need more clerical help!!

The entire team agreed that all of these issues warranted further discussion at future meetings.

It had taken approximately an hour and a half to move through this portion of the agenda. The team took a break for coffee and conversation and returned to devote the remainder of the day and evening to "staff communication.

To begin the session of staff communication, the consultants presented these data about staff communication to the team members:

Staff Communication

1. It involves the entire staff.
2. Discontent and resentment among staff members, often, are not expressed directly to persons about whom it is felt. It is often expressed to others.
3. People are not sure if "jokes" between staff members are jokes, or if they are making indirect statements of criticism.
4. The director and the staff need to communicate more.

A survey of the team followed the presentation and clarification of the data. All agreed that the data accurately reflected some of the dynamics of the team.

At this point, the consultants took the initiative and introduced a procedure for exchanging interpersonal feedback. From the outset, this procedure was designed to give all members maximum control over the feedback they would receive. All team members were given a large sheet of newsprint and asked to make two lists. The first was a list of their own behaviors that were helpful; the second was a list of their own behaviors that were "not helpful." Another way of looking at this was that they were to make lists of what they felt were their own strengths and weaknesses in relation to the team.

When all of the team members had completed their lists, they were asked to post them on the walls around the room. Then, all the team members were asked to "mill around" and read each of the other team member's lists and to add their own comments. In this fashion, each team member ended up with a list of "helpful" and "unhelpful" behaviors, as the other team members perceived them. The process of completing one another's list took about 45

minutes. When all the lists were completed, each team member took some time along to read and consider the feedback they had just received.

The consultants then laid the ground rules for the remainder of this feedback session. They explained that the feedback received by each team member, belonged to that member, and consequently, each member needed to choose how to use the feedback he or she had just received. Several options were presented. First of all, the team members could choose simply to consider the feedback personally and decide if there was some information that was useful to them for their future reference. Under this option, it would not be necessary to discuss any of the feedback with the team. If the entire team decided to choose this option, the discussion would end immediately.

Another option was for each team member to seek clarification about his or her feedback. Perhaps some of the feedback was unclear, not specific enough, or more information about the others' perceptions was needed. In the latter case, one person may ask the other team members to describe which of his or her behaviors led to their perceptions. Alternatively, one team member may want feedback from other team members on a particular issue raised by one or two team members. When team members choose the option of asking for clarification, it is their responsibility to initiate the request and to be clear about exactly what they want from whom.

The third and final option enabled each team member to "contract" for feedback in the future about a particular behavior. Under this option, team members could decide that they might benefit from knowing exactly what they were doing to create a particular perception or reaction at the time they were doing it. This could be useful either to help clear up any

misunderstandings right on the spot, or to help a person change behavior of which they might not be aware.

The consultants' role was to facilitate and to clarify communication. If a team member asked for further clarification from another member on a specific behavior, the consultants might help the former to clearly state his or her request and to ask the latter to paraphrase the request to ensure accurate communication. When further clarification was provided, the consultants might ask the receiver to paraphrase it and to describe some examples of specific instances when such behavior occurred. They would then check to see if the other members shared the perception of those instances as an example of the behavior.

The consultants were also concerned with the team's emotional tone. They realized that team members might be sensitive to feedback about unhelpful behaviors and personal weaknesses so they tried to ensure that such feedback was given clearly and constructively. Constructive feedback focuses on behaviors that the receiver has the power to change. It is not evaluative nor is it judgmental. The consultants were also concerned with the level of receptivity of each team member to feedback. They realized that there is such a thing as too much feedback at one time, and would intervene to regulate the process as the need arose.

Following the presentation of the options and a discussion of the consultants' role, the team members took responsibility for their own feedback sessions. What followed was an eight-hour group discussion that would take an additional chapter to describe in any meaningful way. Each team member had a turn to ask for clarification about some bit of feedback, and most contracted for ongoing feedback from specific individuals or the group as a whole.

In the case just described, the primary designs for team building were data feedback and confrontation. Using these designs, the consultants identified the problem areas for the team and moved them into constructive problem solving and conflict resolution. To aid in the team building, the consultants made use of educational inputs about the nature of team building, about the various methods of making decisions, and about how different kinds of organizational pressures stemming from the structure and function of the team create stress among team members. Equally important, the consultants provided a well organized design through which team members could constructively confront one another with their differences and successfully reach a negotiated compromise, resulting in each member feeling a degree of influence over the final decision. As time went on, it became more and more clear to all that the interpersonal processes of the retreat were more important than any particular outcome or solution that was decided upon.

It is clear too that the skills and competencies of the consultants were important variables in the success of the team-building experience. Such competence is a result of adequate training in the technology of team building and experience in applying it. It is no surprise, then, that the cost of such outside consultation is high, and as a result is beyond the fiscal reach of many school districts. This is particularly true for districts that have made a major commitment to the team model throughout their system. This presents a problem, as team building experiences, such as the one described above are critical for continued effective team functioning. It is just this problem that has led some school districts to establish cadres of organizational specialists within their district.

Cadres of Organizational Specialists Within School Districts

Cadres of organizational specialists are district-wide teams

composed of in-district personnel who have been trained in the theory and technology of organization development and team building. These specialists function as part-time consultants while carrying out their full-time teaching, coordinating, or administrative responsibilities. Their training and functioning is often carried out on their own time and on a voluntary basis, although some relief may be provided in some districts.

Members of the cadre use their understanding and skills to help others in the district clarify communication, reach out to use relevant resources, systematically solve problems and make decisions, assess progress toward educational goals, and cope with the stress of interdependence and conflict in a productive way. They work with teaching teams, building staffs, district-wide teams, management teams, and parent, student, and community teams. In addition, they offer inservice training courses in organization development theory and skills for individuals in the district.

Cadres of organizational specialists are now an integral part of two school districts in the Pacific Northwest. One in Kent, Washington, has been operating since 1969; the other in Eugene, Oregon, since 1971. These cadres were initially trained and installed by members of the Program on Strategies of Organizational Change in the research and development section of the Center for Educational Policy and Management at the University of Oregon in Eugene. A document by Arends and Phelps entitled Establishing Organizational Specialists Within School Districts describes the way school districts can create and maintain cadres on their own (see the annotated bibliography below for additional information).

Annotated Bibliography

(Chapter 6)

Arends, R.I. and J.H. Phelps. Establishing Organizational Specialists Within School Districts. Center for Educational Policy and Management, University of Oregon, 1973, (mimeo).

This document describes how two cadres of organizational specialists were established, their rationale, the success of their work, and provides practical guidelines for the establishment of cadres in other school districts.

Beckhard, R. Organization Development: Strategies and Models. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1969.

This booklet defines organization development as an effort planned organization-wide and managed from the top to increase organization effectiveness and health through planned interventions in the organization's processes, using behavioral-science knowledge. The term "change manager" is used to refer to those who are responsible for the organization's operations and effectiveness and who must accept major management responsibility in any planned organization or unit-wide change effort. The term "change agent" is used to refer to those people, either inside or outside the organization, who are providing technical, specialist or consulting assistance in the management of a change effort. Alternative arrangements for linking organizations and outside resources and for the use of internal change agents are described.

Boyer, R.K. Development for the New Organizational Team. Business Quarterly,

1969, 34, 64-71.

This article focuses on the use of laboratory methods in an organizational development program designed to enhance the effectiveness of new organizational teams. The general problems facing the new organizational teams and the organizations which form them are portrayed as follows: (1) What resources will the new team need? (2) How will the new team use its resources? (3) How soon, if ever, will the new team become effective? Seven main areas of concern in organizational development programs are identified: (1) the authority structure versus a multitude of complex interpersonal working relationships which bridge functions and individuals; (2) interdependency among people and functions; (3) the creative management of uncertainty; (4) the management of conflict; (5) openness, direct communication, trust, self-insight, and interpersonal competence; (6) relationships with dynamic environments; and (7) a systems approach to interrelated individual skills, attitudes and behavior, interpersonal relationships and competence, organizational structure and policies, and organizational technology.

Harrison, R. Role Negotiation: A Tough-Minded Approach to Team Development. In Burke and Hornstein (Eds.), The Social Technology of Organization Development. Fairfax, Virginia: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1972. Pp. 84-96.

This article presents a "self-interest" model of role negotiation as a means for resolving role conflict in teams.

Jones, R.V. Tuning Up the Staff for Organizational Change. Secondary Edu-

cation. 1969, 44, 339-346.

The author suggests six steps which seem appropriate to any major organizational innovation: (1) the examination of present practices; (2) the clarification of purposes; (3) the examination of new models; (4) the development of new skills; (5) the protection of change; and (6) the feedback for growth. Three conditions for change are as follows: (1) an atmosphere of freedom which encourages thoughtful experimentation; (2) an organization hierarchy which not only values competence but also assumes competence in all staff members; and (3) an organization in which decisions are made as close to the operational level as is possible.

Fox, R.S., R.A. Schmuck, E.M. Van Egmond, M. Ritvo, C. Jung. Diagnosing Professional Climate of Schools, Fairfax, Virginia: NTL Learning Corporation, Inc., 2817 Dorr Avenue, 1973.

This manual is designed to help staff members assess and improve the professional climate of their schools. It has two main parts: part one presents ideas and concepts relevant to the process of educational change, the school as a system, and organizational problem solving; part two consists of a series of instruments which can be used to measure key aspects of a school system's capability for self-renewal.

Pino, R., R. Emory, and C. Jung. Preparing Educational Training Consultants. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1973.

This is a packaged program for training OD consultants for schools and districts.

Schein, E.H. Process Consultation: Its Role in Organization Development.
Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1969.

In standard consultation models, the consultant gives expert advice on how to solve a particular problem which the organization has identified and is concerned about passing on his knowledge, whereas in process consultation it is assumed that the organization does not know how to use its own resources effectively either in initial problem solution or in implementation of solutions and the process consultant is concerned about passing on his skills and values.

Schmuck, R.A. Developing Teams of Organizational Specialists. In R.A. Schmuck and M.B. Miles (Eds.), Organization Development in Schools. Palo Alto: National Press Books, 1971. Pp. 213-230.

This article describes the uses of a cadre of organizational specialists in a school district. Some notes on building a cadre are included.

Schmuck, R.A. Incorporating Survey Feedback in OD Interventions. (Presented to the American Educational Research Association, 1973.) Occasional Paper of CEPM-CASEA, University of Oregon, 1973.

This article describes methods of using data feedback in OD interventions and team-building.

Schmuck, R.A., P.J. Runkel, S.L. Saturen, R.T. Martell, and C.B. Derr.

Handbook of Organization Development in Schools. Palo Alto:
National Press Books, 1972.

This book provides a collection of directions and specifications useful in the practical application of OD techniques. It is designed as a reference tool and as an action-oriented guide. The first two chapters explain the overall concepts necessary for planning intervention in schools and districts and set the framework for the rest of the Handbook. In particular, they serve as an introduction and guide to Chapters 3 through 8, each of which presents a rationale and methods for improving a particular function of the school organization. Let us use Chapter 3 as an example. Discussing the clarification of communication, it begins by presenting the concepts and principles that are pertinent to the problem of communication and follows these with a few short readings relating the authors' ideas to the larger literature. Next, the chapter provides some tools for assessing the present condition of communication in an organization. Exercises are described by which organizational members can examine their own communicative processes and learn some new methods of face-to-face communication. Then the authors offer some procedures for use in several situations that are likely to arise during an organization's actual work day. Finally, ways of building training episodes are described to help increase the flow and clarity of communication. Each of the chapters 3-8 has a similar

structure. The last two chapters discuss designing and evaluating training programs. The emphasis in OD is on the system as a target for change, rather than on isolated individuals, but each member of the system is actively involved in the assessment, diagnosis and transformation of his own organization.

Walton, R.F. Interpersonal Peacemaking: Confrontation and Third Party Consultation. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1969.

The author offers some provocative insights into the complexities of the third party role; his approach involves improving intergroup relations by improving relations between their representatives.